THE TIMES
CONCISE ATLAS OF World HISTORY

THIRD EDITION

THE TIMES

Concise Atlas of WORLD HISTORY

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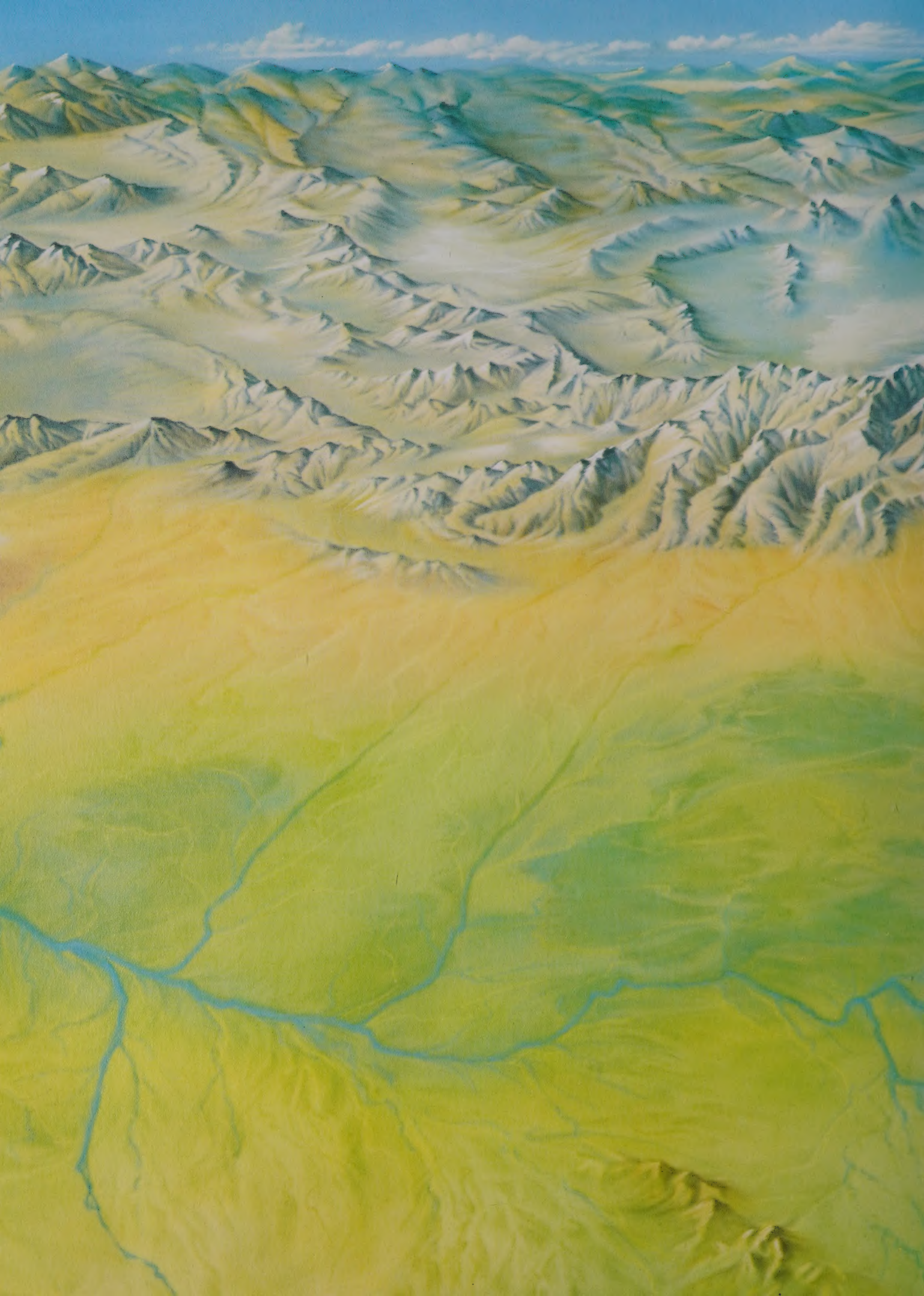

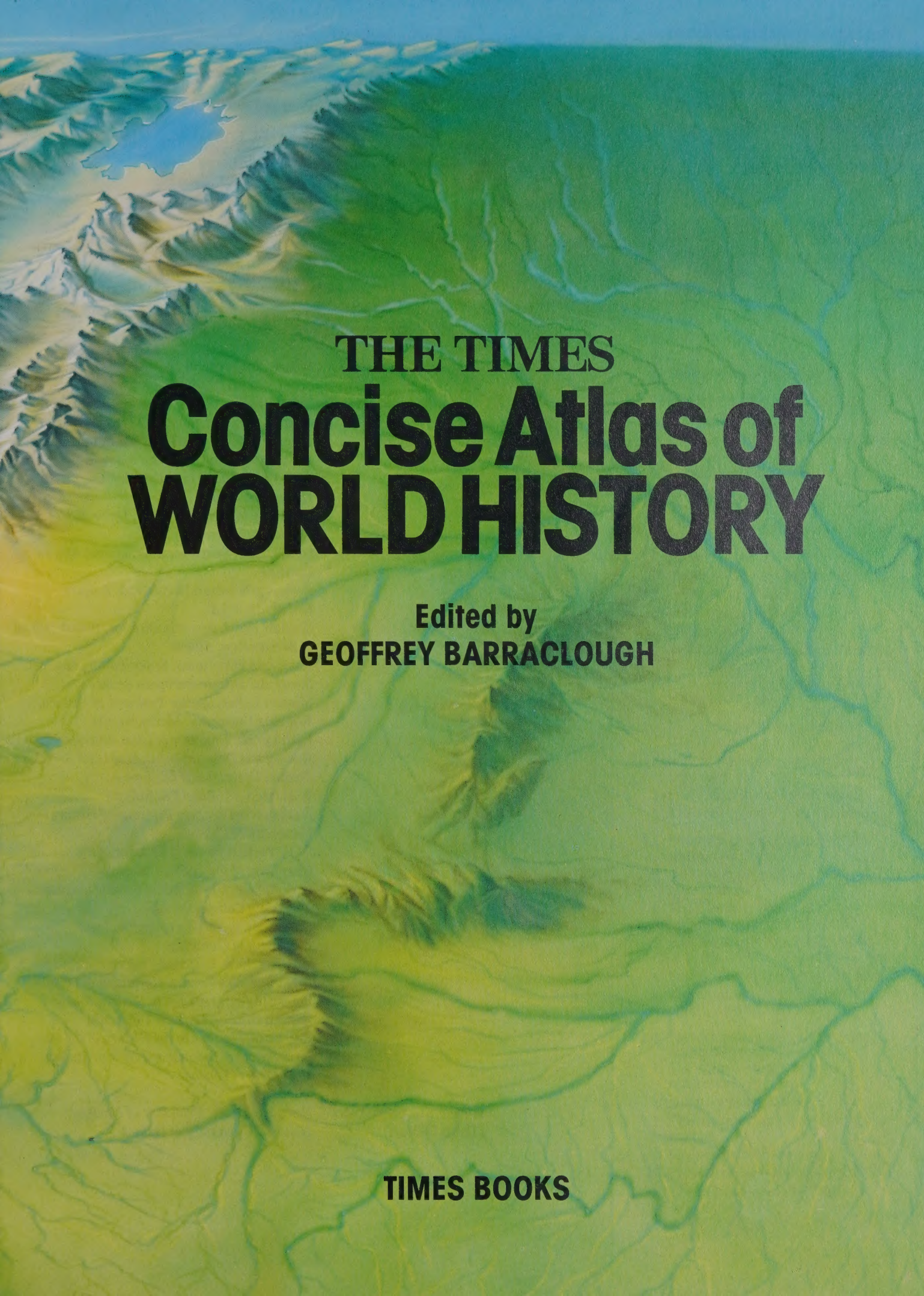

THE TIMES
Concise Atlas of WORLD HISTORY

Edited by
GEOFFREY BARRACLOUGH

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INTRODUCTION

The welcome given to THE TIMES ATLAS OF WORLD HISTORY, first published in English in September 1978, and now available in nine languages, shows how widespread an interest there is today in the human story. It also led us to think that there might be a place for a shorter, less elaborate atlas on a reduced scale.

The present volume is the result. Nevertheless THE TIMES CONCISE ATLAS OF WORLD HISTORY is not merely a condensed and abbreviated version of the earlier work. No fewer than 70 of the 320 maps here presented are entirely new or radically changed, and many others have been revised and redesigned. THE TIMES CONCISE ATLAS is intended to stand on its own feet as a compact, easily available reference book covering the whole story of mankind from the earliest beginnings, when man's ancestors first emerged from the tropical forests of Africa, to the complex, highly articulated world in which we live.

Although the present volume incorporates new material and differs in a number of other ways from the larger work on which it is based, the principles which have guided us are the same. As in THE TIMES ATLAS OF WORLD HISTORY, we have endeavoured to make the coverage as universal as is possible in the present state of knowledge, and in particular to provide full and clear accounts of the civilisations of Asia, Africa and the Americas, both before and after the coming of the Europeans. We have paid close attention to the relations and interactions between these different regions in all their manifestations – cultural and economic, peaceful and warlike, including invasions and migrations, the spread of agriculture and the diffusion of technologies – because we believe these to be some of the main threads of world history. Although we have given more space in this volume to the intricate web of politics (wars, treaties, frontier changes) and to the internal development of particular countries (e.g. England, Russia, Japan, and the U.S.A.), it is our view that world history is more than a combination of national histories, and we have planned this work accordingly.

A long view and a wide historical perspective are vitally important in the world as it is constituted today. If THE TIMES CONCISE ATLAS OF WORLD HISTORY has succeeded in providing such a view, it will have fulfilled one of its objectives. Nevertheless it is important to emphasise that this is not an atlas of current affairs. We have sought, in the concluding plates, to pick out and illustrate some of the more significant trends and movements in the contemporary world, but no attempt has been made to cover the years between 1945 and 1980 in detail. That was not our purpose; but we believe that informed knowledge of the past is a key to the understanding of the present and – as the great Victorian historian, Lord Acton, said it should be – 'a power that goes to the making of the future.'

GEOFFREY BARRACLOUGH
Oxford, March 1982

This third edition brings many changes and updates to Professor Barraclough's first edition. The changes were planned and implemented after his death in December 1984, but the academic authorities to whom we have referred for revisions and updates are among the great team he assembled for this series of Times Historical Atlases and follow principles he laid down.

TIMES BOOKS
March 1988

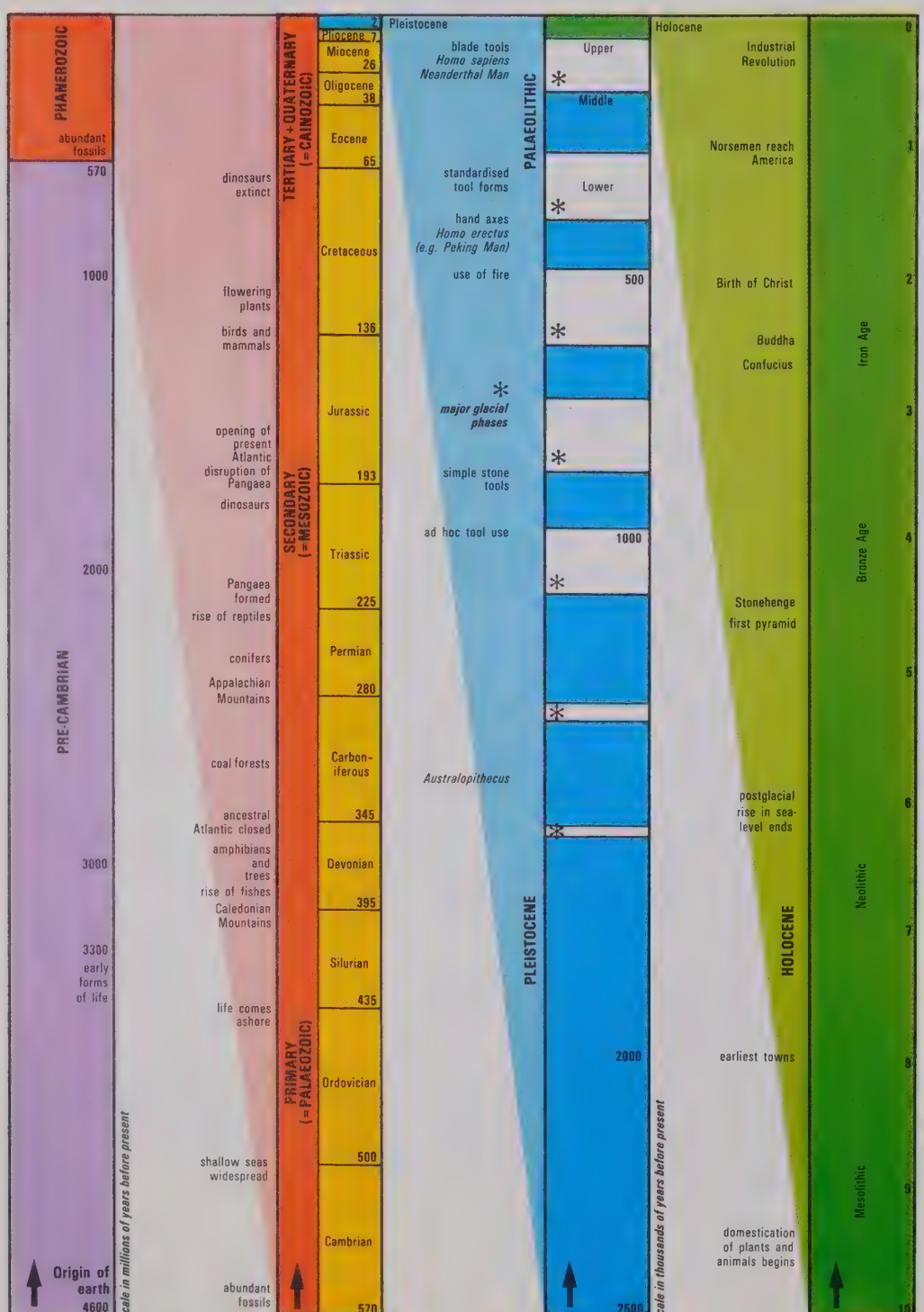
Human origins

In the longer perspective of world history Man is comparatively a newcomer to the historical scene. Life on earth, as the geological time-chart (diagram 1) indicates, reaches back more than 3,000 million years. Birds and mammals appeared at least 130 million years ago. Modern Man (*Homo sapiens*) is at most 250,000 years old, probably considerably less. He and the great apes are believed to have descended from various ape-like species, the *Dryopithecinae*, whose fossil remains, dating from 15–20 million years ago, have been found in east Africa, northern India and Europe. But much in the subsequent process of human evolution and differentiation still remains obscure. Moreover, it must be borne in mind that evidence for the history of early Man and his ancestors (map 3) is largely accidental and haphazard, the result of chance survival or of the concentration of archaeologists on particular sites or areas. New discoveries could substantially modify the picture.

The original home of the early hominids was equatorial Africa. Why, unlike the tree-living apes, these creatures took to the ground, can only be surmised; presumably it was in search of foods. In any event it marked a decisive step in human evolution. Travelling upright on two feet, early Man developed unique physical characteristics. He was also free to use his hands for new purposes, e.g. to make tools and weapons from pebbles and later from flints and other sharp-edged materials. Along with increased manual dexterity went other characteristic developments, notably an increasingly large brain. At the same time the jaw and snout, no longer needed to seek out and masticate raw food, became less prominent. Indeed, the evolution of Man is most easily traced (diagram 2) in terms of jaw formation and cranial capacity, until about 40,000 years ago the latter attained today's average of 1500 cc.

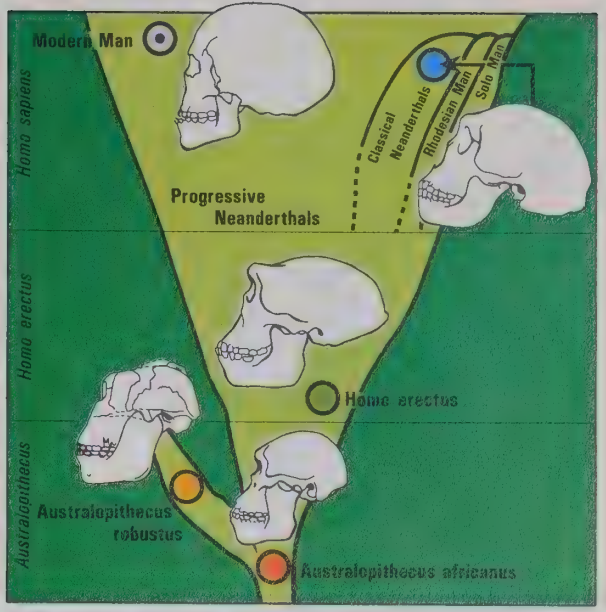
The course of this evolutionary development is certainly not unilinear. The earliest hominids, dating from about 10 million years ago, belong to the genus *Ramapithecus*, but there is no certainty that these creatures were bipeds. The earliest definite evidence of terrestrial bipedal hominids was discovered at Taungs in southern Africa in 1924. They belong to the genus *Australopithecus*, of which there are at least two distinct species, *A. robustus* and *A. africanus*, the former larger and with prominent jaws, the latter smaller and probably a hunter and meat-eater. Whereas the fate of the former is obscure, *A. africanus* is almost certainly the ancestor of the first recognisably human creature, *Homo erectus*, who is found over a wide geographical range, extending to Java and Peking, indicating that by this time Man had fully developed the skills and organisation enabling him to spread far and wide from his African homeland across Asia and Europe. Except for the skull, with a brain capacity of 1000 cc, the bone structure of *Homo erectus* is indistinguishable from that of modern Man. His tools were far more sophisticated than those of *Australopithecus*, and at Peking (c.350,000 years ago) he was using fire, thus enabling him to live north of the frost line in the caves of Choukoutien.

Homo erectus survived for 1.5 million years or more, and it is not clear when he gave way to *Homo sapiens*. The earliest remains which can properly be classified as human were found at Steinheim and Swanscombe and date from c.250,000 BC. But even here the cranial capacity is smaller than that of modern Man. The intermediate stage is commonly known as that of 'Neanderthal Man', named after a skull discovered in Germany in 1856. But 'classic' Neanderthal Man appears to have been an aberration and disappeared with the retreat of the glaciers. A more generalised 'progressive' Neanderthal type occurs widely in separate parts of the Old World, and it was from this type, somewhere between the eastern Mediterranean and the mountains of inner Asia, that modern Man first emerged. Once established, he spread quickly over the whole world.



1 Geological periods

2 Traces of early Man



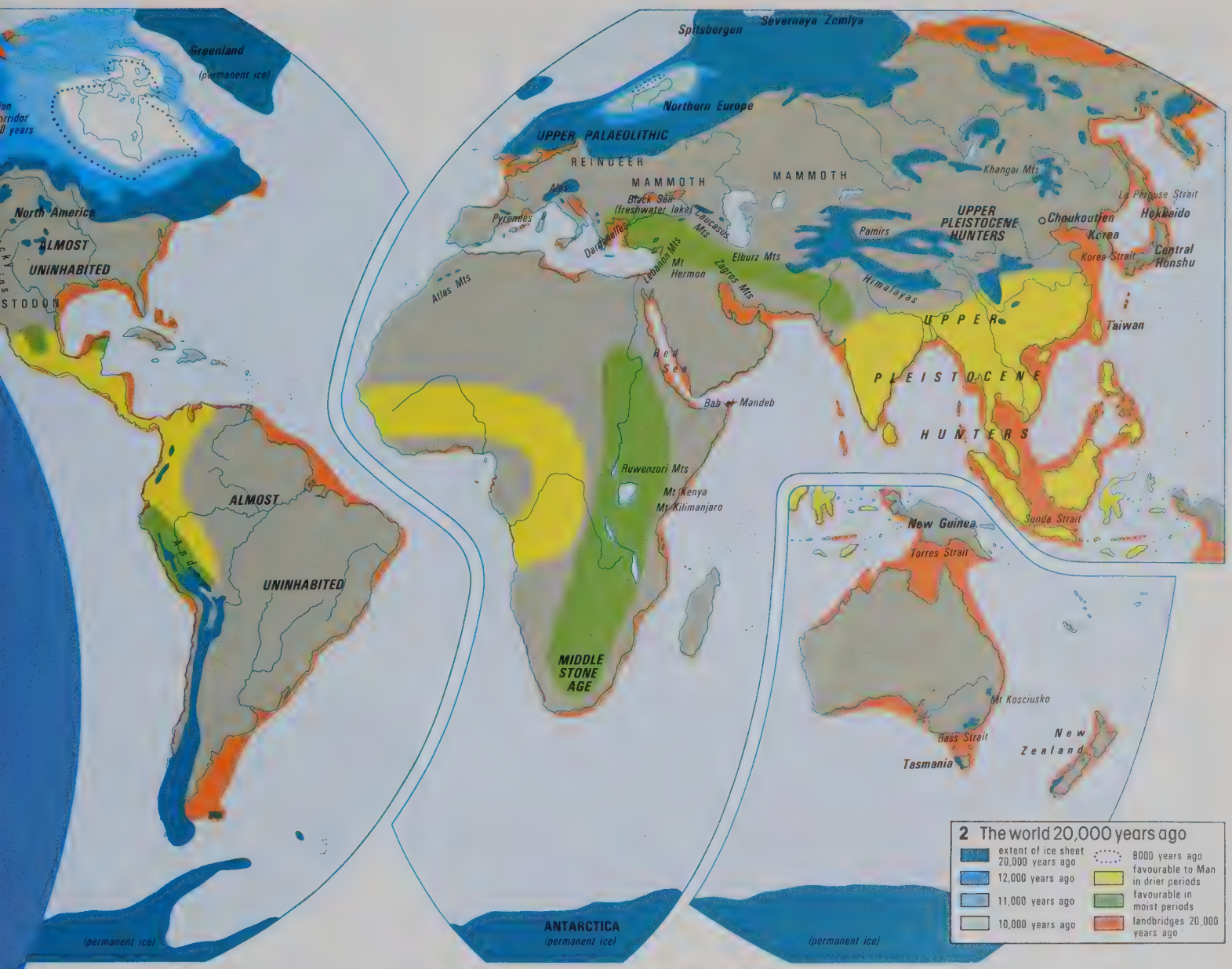
2 The evolution of Man

Man and the Ice Age

The different ice ages of the Pleistocene era (page 2, diagram 1) marked a decisive phase in the history of Man. His ability to adapt himself to the environmental changes in this period of extreme climatic variation was a crucial factor both in his survival and in his ability to dominate other species. In northern latitudes the main determinant of animal existence throughout the Pleistocene era was the advance and retreat of the glaciers. Only when they shrank back, allowing the northward spread of the vegetation on which mammoths and reindeer browsed, was it possible for human beings to live outside the warmer equatorial regions. In these regions the pluvial age (i.e. the period of favourable rain and vegetation) fostered the emergence of more advanced tool- and weapon-making cultures, which emerged c.20,000 years ago.

The decisive phase came with the advance of the Würm glaciers in central Europe – the last European ice age – and the associated Weichsel and Wisconsin glacier fields in northern Europe and north America, some 75,000 years ago. By tying up water on a grand scale these reduced sea levels, and land bridges appeared, linking most major areas and many isolated islands (including the British Isles) into one single continental mainland. The result (map 2) was that Man was able to reach Australia and Tasmania (page 10). No less significant was the land bridge between eastern Asia and Alaska, which became a highway for human beings and animals. When around 12,000 years ago an ice-free corridor opened through Canada, the hunters from Siberia advanced into the rich gamelands of the American plains (as schematically indicated on map 3), and then, as the abundant herds became depleted, moved through the Panama isthmus into South America.

The earliest tool-makers had been restricted by climatic conditions to the south of the Old World. During the last glacial phase (75,000–10,000 BC), when sea levels were low and ice expansion had restricted the forests, groups of hunters expanded northwards, where they could exploit the rich animal life of the steppe and tundra zones. The main lines of expansion are indicated on map 1, which also shows the limits of human habi-



tation at different periods. Climatic change – i.e. the onset of warmer conditions – some 10,000 years ago, profoundly affected the human situation. Rising sea levels cut off Australia and the Americas, which henceforward pursued their own independent lines of development (pages 10 and 12). Elsewhere Man advanced, with the help of fire and warm clothing (initially animal skins), into areas hitherto precluded from human habitation. At the same time the depletion of hunting resources, which thus far had been the main source of foodstuffs, compelled men to turn to new sources of subsistence. Hunters and gatherers persisted in the remoter areas down to modern times, but as the world started slowly to warm up, more and more people were driven by necessity to domesticate animals and plants and to embark on what was subsequently called the Neolithic or agricultural revolution (page 6). This, again, was a major turning point in human history.

The ice age presented a great challenge to Man, which he successfully overcame, largely by developing his mental capacities and his aptitude for cooperation. Cave paintings in the Dordogne and elsewhere show, apart from their remarkable artistic merits, that by 6000 BC, probably considerably earlier, men had learnt to work together in hunting food-producing animals, e.g. herds of red deer. Much earlier, c.40,000 BC, the mastodons and mammoths had started to disappear from Africa and South-East Asia, presumably as a result of concerted attacks by groups of humans. The same was true in the Americas where by 10,000 BC most of the teeming animal life (including horses) had disappeared. It is impossible to say how far primitive Man, with his limited numbers, was responsible for this destruction; but there is little doubt that late Palaeolithic Man, with his greatly expanded population, played a major part in the process.

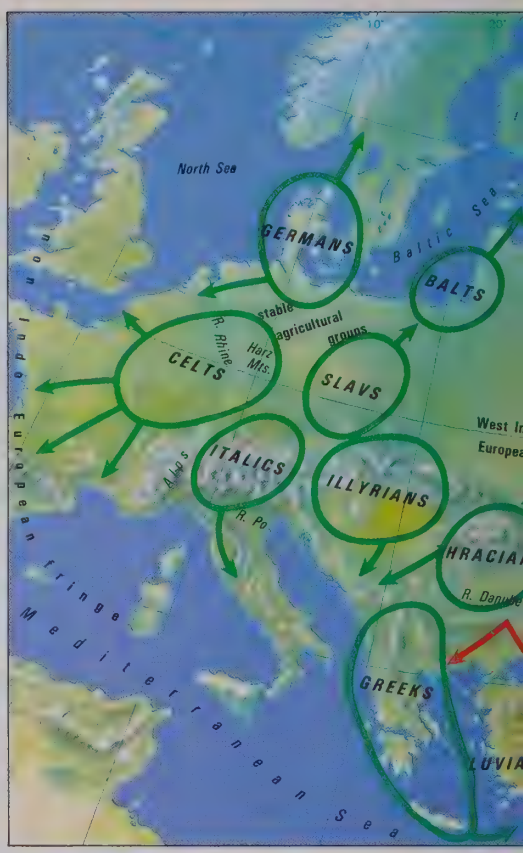
From hunting to farming

Somewhere around 8000 BC Man began to select, breed, domesticate and cultivate various species of plant and animal. This was the beginning of agriculture and is sometimes called the Neolithic or agricultural revolution. In fact, it was a slow and partial process which occurred at different times and speeds in different parts of the world and was never complete, if only because climatic and soil variations precluded agriculture in many areas. The arid zones were the home of mobile pastoralists, who domesticated sheep and horses and colonised the grazing grounds of the steppes (map 3), while the densely afforested areas, in northern Europe and elsewhere, were inhabited, as earlier, by hunters. The result, following the spread of agriculture, was a differentiated world economy, with well defined zones, cereal and root-crop cultivation being characteristic of the temperate and tropical regions respectively (map 1).

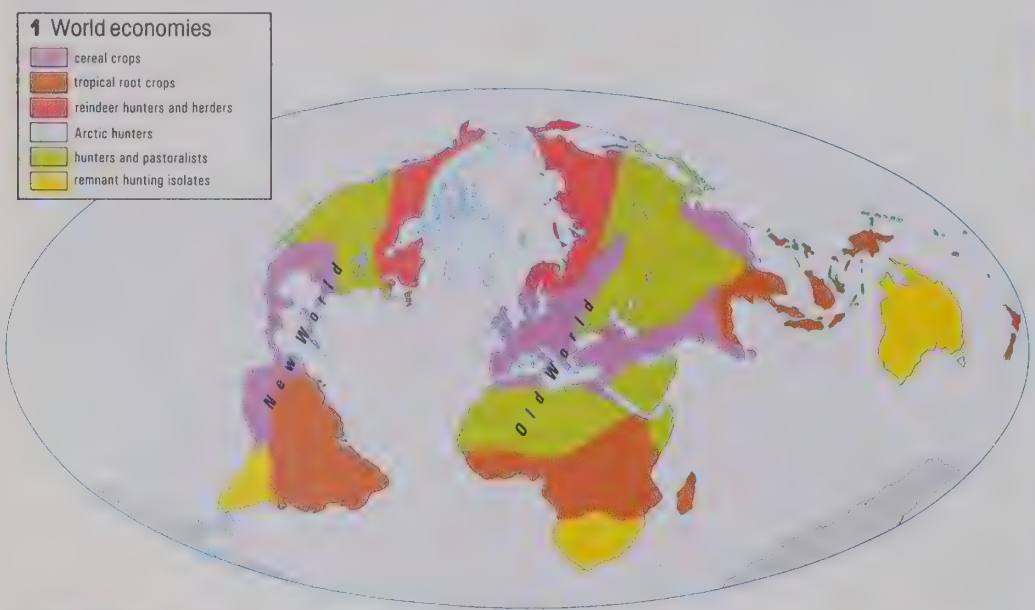
Nevertheless, the transformation of Man from a hunter and fisher to an agriculturalist, and from a migratory to a sedentary life, was a decisive event in world history. The increase in food resources which followed made possible a spectacular growth of human population which is calculated to have multiplied sixteen times between 8000 and 4000 BC. It also required co-operative effort, particularly after the introduction of irrigation c.5000 BC, leading to the establishment of settled, organised societies, at first villages, then towns and cities. Urban civilisation dates from c.3500 BC, but already before 6000 BC there were 'proto-cities' covering extensive sites (up to 30 acres) at Jericho in the Jordan valley and Çatal Hüyük in Anatolia. Here also there is evidence of long-distance trade, stone for tools at Jericho, for example, coming from as far away as Anatolia.

There is no doubt that agriculture developed independently in different parts of the world (maize in Mexico, for example, millet and rice in China), presumably in response to similar stimuli. But the beginnings of cereal cultivation, which later spread to India and Europe (and in modern times was carried to the New World), are clearly associated with the Near East – that is, with the region bounded in the north by the Caucasus Mountains, in the west by the Mediterranean and Black Seas, and in the east by the Caspian Sea and the Persian Gulf. Here, on the remote mountain uplands, were found the wild ancestors of wheat and barley, and the villages where they were first cultivated (c.8000 BC) grew up on the edge of this zone, within the critical rainfall limit of 300 mm (12 ins) a year (map 2). Only with the introduction of irrigation was it possible to extend cultivation into the adjacent dry plains. This occurred during the fifth and fourth millennia BC.

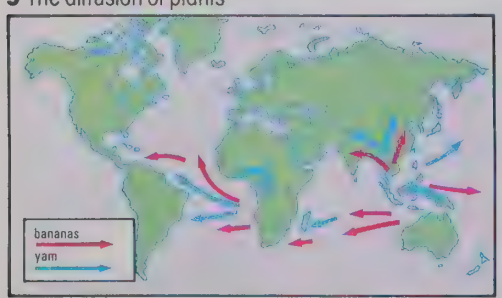
Many other parts of the globe contributed their quota at different times to Man's supply of domesticated plants and animals (map 4). Their diffusion from their original habitat not only supplemented native food resources, but also affected human diet. Rice, which originated in South-East Asia and southern China, passed into the Near East and Mediterranean Europe, where it became a staple foodstuff. The yam and banana, later to be major African food crops, were introduced from Asia during the first millennium BC. The story of domestic animals is similar. The camel, first domesticated in central Asia, was introduced into Africa c.100 BC and made possible a rapid expansion of trans-Saharan trade. A new chapter opened after AD 1500, following the discovery of the New World (map 5). Without the potato, which originated in America, it would scarcely have been possible to feed the teeming population of Europe during the Industrial Revolution.

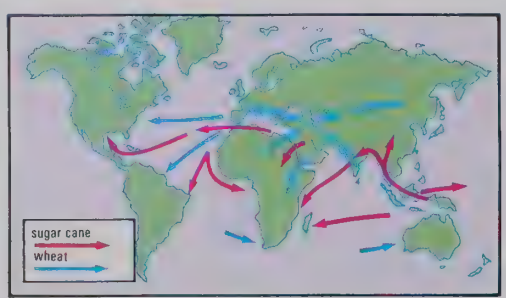


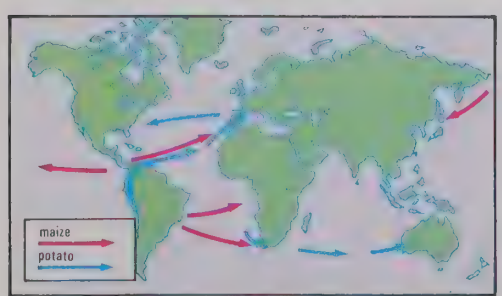
1 World economies

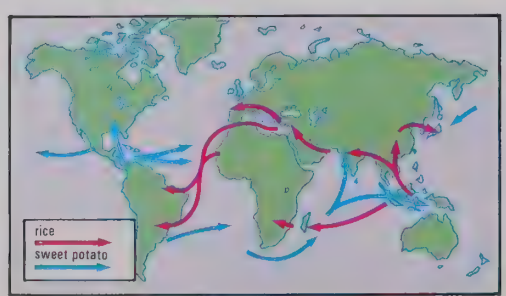


5 The diffusion of plants









3 Pastoral societies in Eurasia
3rd and early 2nd millennium BC
later 2nd and 1st millennium BC
BALTS Indo-Europeans
good pastureland
hunters of the Northern forests (Finno-Ugrian)
East Indo-European mobile pastoralists
zone of
Scythian Complex
R. Don
R. Volga
pre-literate Indo Europeans
Kuban Valley
Black Sea
Caucasus Mountains
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
Iranian Complex (Aryans)
zone of mobile pastoralists
Hindu Kush
HITTITES
Taurus Mountains
zone of urban civilisations
R. Tigris
MITANNI
INDO-ARYANS

Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Elburz Mts
ANATOLIA
earliest villages
Mureybat
Tell Halaf
Catal Hüyük
Canhasan
Taurus Mts
zone of
MESOPOTAMIA
Tell Sawwan
Choga Mami
Zagros Mts
SYRIA
Baghouz
Tepe Sabz
Ali Kosh
R. Tigris
alluvial plain
R. Euphrates
Eridu
Mediterranean Sea
Sea of Galilee
R. Jordan
Jericho
Dead Sea
Syrian Desert
EGYPT
R. Nile
30°
35°
40°
45°
25°
2 The agricultural revolution in the Near East
natural habitat of wild cereals
limit of rain fed agriculture
colonisation movements into the alluvial plain 5th, 4th millennia BC
earliest villages 8th to 6th millennia BC
formative irrigation villages 6th millennium BC
earliest settlements in the alluvial plains, 5th and 4th millennia BC

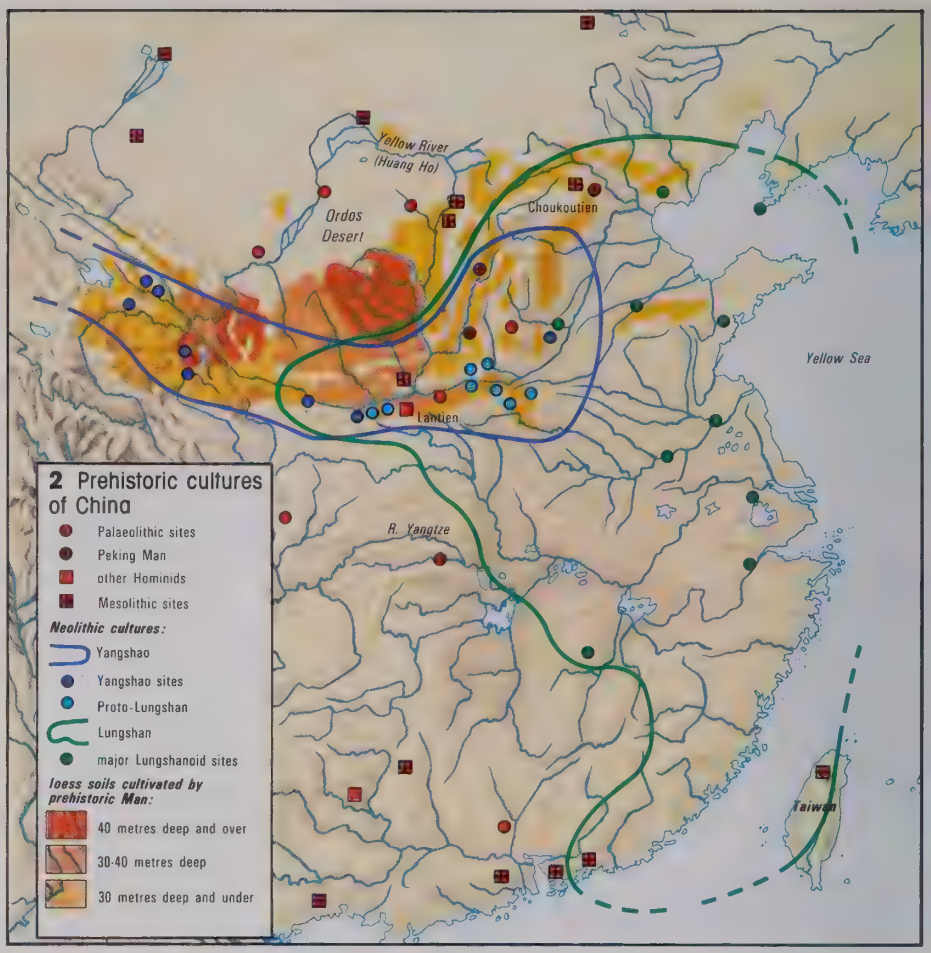
NORTH-WEST EURASIA
Reindeer
SOUTH WESTERN STEPPES
Horse
CENTRAL ASIA
Bactrian Camel
Goose
Cattle
Pig
SOUTHERN EUROPE
NEAR EAST
Ass
Dromedary
Arabian Camel
Goat
Sheep
HIMALAYAS
Yak
CHINA
SOUTH-EAST ASIA
Zebu
Chicken
Pig
Water Buffalo
WEST AFRICA
NORTH-EAST AFRICA
SOUTH PACIFIC
4 Centres of plant and animal domestication
alfalfa
avocado
banana
barley
breadfruit
buckwheat
cocoa
coconut
cotton
cucumber
curcurbits
dates
finger millet
foxtail millet
grapes
hemp
lentil
lima bean
maize
oats
olive
onion
peas
peanuts
peppers
pineapple
potato
rice
runner bean
rye
sorghum
soya bean
sunflower
sweet potato
tepary bean
tomato
watermelon
wheat
yam

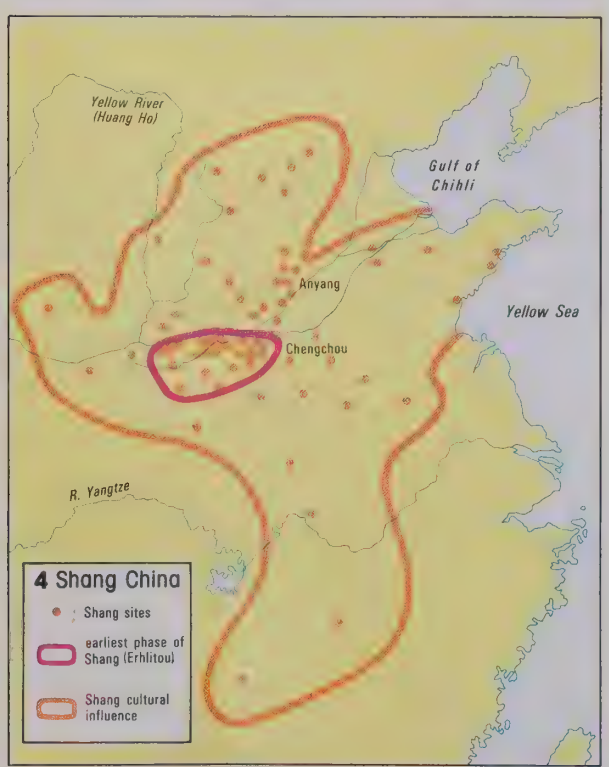
Early cultures of Asia

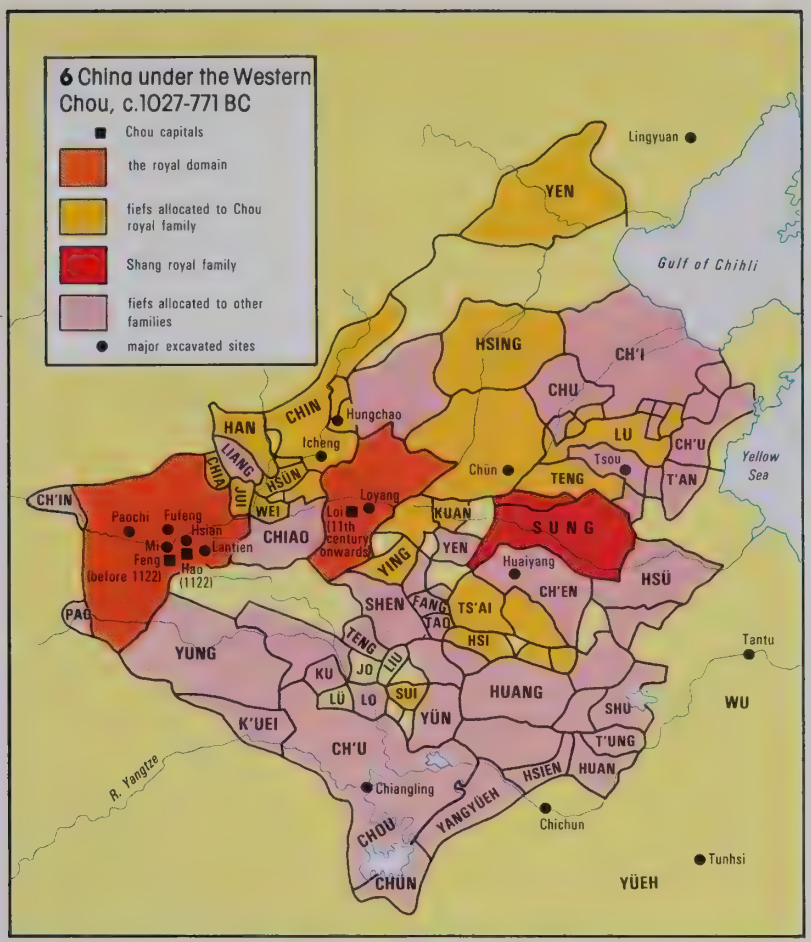
Early Man, or his immediate ancestors, is found widely spread throughout Asia during the Second Interglacial Period (400,000–200,000 BC). His appearance here seems to date from the Middle Pleistocene (page 2, diagram 1), but it is not possible to establish the stages of his advance. It is reasonable to assume that he first reached India, where hand-axes, chopping tools and flakes of the early Stone Age are found not only in the foothills of the Punjab but as far east as southern Bihar and northern Orissa and as far south as Madras (map 1), and that he later moved on to China and South-East Asia. But the discovery of Java Man in the Solo Valley of central Java (map 3) and of Peking Man in the limestone fissures at Choukoutien (map 2), both apparently of approximately the same age, suggests fairly uniform diffusion by c.350,000 BC. What, in any case, is noteworthy is the profusion of early sites, particularly in India, by comparison with Europe, where, except for the Mediterranean littoral, Man's advance was held up by the extensive ice-fields.

These early hominids were hunters, and it was not until long after the appearance of *homo sapiens* (in Java c.40,000 BC, in China c.30,000 BC) that we find the beginnings of agriculture. Evidence from Spirit Cave in northern Siam suggests that rice cultivation had begun in South-East Asia by 6000 BC. In China the first agricultural communities arose c.4000 BC in the loess-covered highlands of the north and north-west, where the well-drained soil of the river terraces was ideal for primitive agriculture. Nevertheless, the first Neolithic culture, the Yangshao, still subsisted largely by hunting and fishing. Its successor, the Lungshan, covered a wider area and had more permanent villages and a higher level of organisation (map 2). In India there was a similar evolution. By the end of the fourth millennium more advanced settlements were widely scattered throughout Sind, Baluchistan and Rajasthan, and urban life was beginning to develop, with the appearance of copper and bronze.

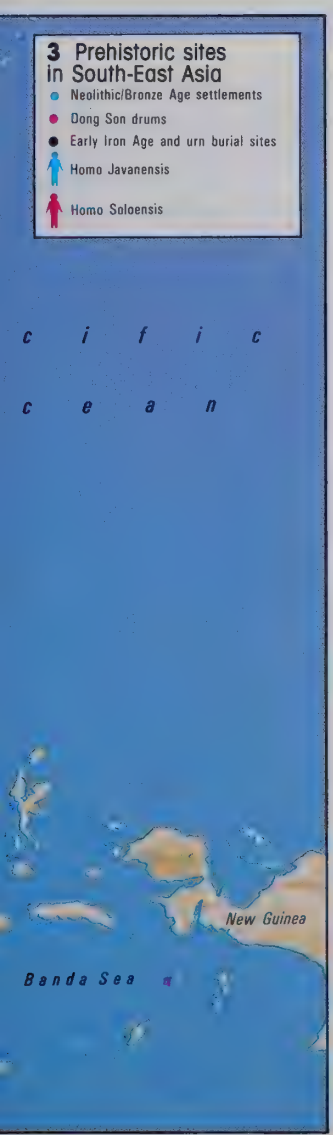
The advent of copper and bronze (in South-East Asia perhaps as early as 3000, in China c.1600 BC) marked a new and decisive stage in the history of Asian civilisation. In China it is associated with the first historical dynasty, the Shang, dating approximately from 1700–1100 BC (map 4). In South-East Asia its impact is seen in the famous Dong Son bronze drums, distributed widely throughout the region but with a marked concentration c.1000 BC in northern Vietnam (map 3). In India craftsmanship was a feature of the great Indus civilisation, spreading from the highly developed cities of Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro – the largest of all the early civilisations of the Old World, covering nearly 1,295,000 sq. km (500,000 sq. miles) (map 5) – which survived for around 1000 years (c.2550–1550 BC) until it was destroyed by primitive tribal invaders from the north: the Aryans. In China, also, the Shang were defeated and displaced by a more primitive warrior people from the western borderlands of their domains, the Chou, who gradually extended control over a much larger area (map 6). Both the Shang and the Chou regimes were loose collections of feudal overlordships, rather than centralised monarchies, and both were forced to move their capitals frequently under political pressure. It was only later (page 28), with the introduction of iron technology (c.800–500 BC) that empires arose with adequate economic and administrative foundations.






6 China under the Western Chou, c.1027-771 BC
Chou capitals
the royal domain
fiefs allocated to Chou royal family
Shang royal family
fiefs allocated to other families
major excavated sites
Lingyuan
YEN
Gulf of Chihli
HSING
CH'I
CHU
LU
CH'U
T'AN
TENG
Yellow Sea
Chün
Tsou
HAN
CHIN
Hungchao
Icheng
LIANG
CHIA
HSUN
JUI
WEI
CH'IN
Paochi
Fufeng
Hsien
Mi
Feng
Hao
(before 1122)
Lantien
(1122)
CHIAO
Loyang
Lo
(11th century onwards)
KUAN
SUNG
YING
YEN
Huaiyang
CH'EN
HSÜ
SHEN
FANG
TS'AI
TAO
HSI
PAO
YUNG
TENG
LIU
KU
JO
LÜ
LO
SUI
HUANG
YÜN
SHU
WU
Tantu
K'UEI
CH'U
T'UNG
HSIEN
HUAN
R. Yangtze
Chiangling
YANGYÜEH
Chichun
CHOU
CHUN
Tunhsi
YÜEH

1 India: Stone Age and Iron Age
early Stone Age sites
middle Stone Age sites
late Stone Age sites
finds of copper and bronze implements
sites of rock and cave paintings
Iron Age sites
extent of Iron Age graves
other graves, probably related
Gilgit Hoard
Sanghao
Shalozan
Soan Valley
Mundigak
R. Indus
Beas Valley
Fort Munro
Panipat
Sonpat
Alamgirpur
Indraprastha (Delhi)
Mohenjo-Daro
Shahi Tump
Chanhu-Daro
Bairat
Khurdi
Noh
Mathura
Ahichchatra
Kharif Khera
Kathigarh
Shravasti
Deoti
Chirand
Modi Rock Shelter
Ahar
Langhnaj
Nagda
Ujjain
Kayatha
Eran
Morhana Pahar
Hami
Bhimbhanpur
Khunti
Rajkot
Lothal
Rangpur
Navdatoli
Jabalpur area
Bassia
Santal
Mahisdal
Pandu Rajar Dhibi
Ranjala
Adamgarh
Junagani
Singhanpur
Sambalpur
Bhagrapir
Jambudip and Dorothy Deep Rock Shelters
Jorwe
Daimabad
Nevasa
Bombay area
Chandoli
Pochampad
ORISSA
Jevargi
Bhongir
Raigir
Terdal
Kondapur
Yelleshwaram
Kallur
Krishna
Nagarjunakonda
Piklihal
Tekkalakota
Hallur
Brahmagiri
Sanur
Jalahali
Pallavaram
Perumbair
Savanadurg
Attirampakkam and Gudiyam Cave
Suttukeni
Muttrapaleon
Porkalam
Gaurimedi
Perumal Hills
Adichanallur
Teri sites
Indian Ocean
Bandarawela Bridge

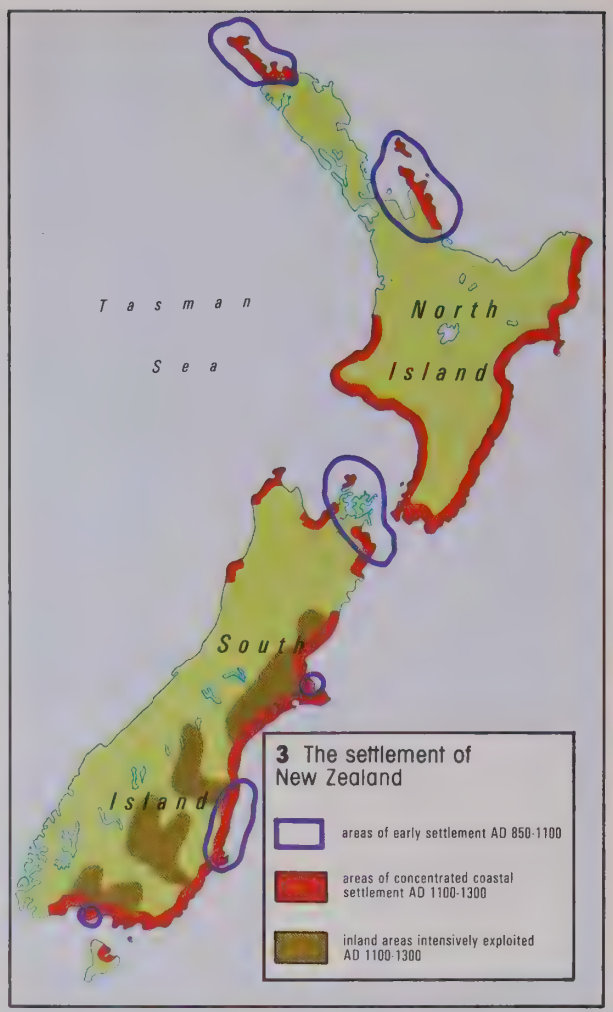

3 Prehistoric sites in South-East Asia
Neolithic/Bronze Age settlements
Dong Son drums
Early Iron Age and urn burial sites
Homo Javanensis
Homo Soloensis
c i f i c
c e a n
New Guinea
Banda Sea

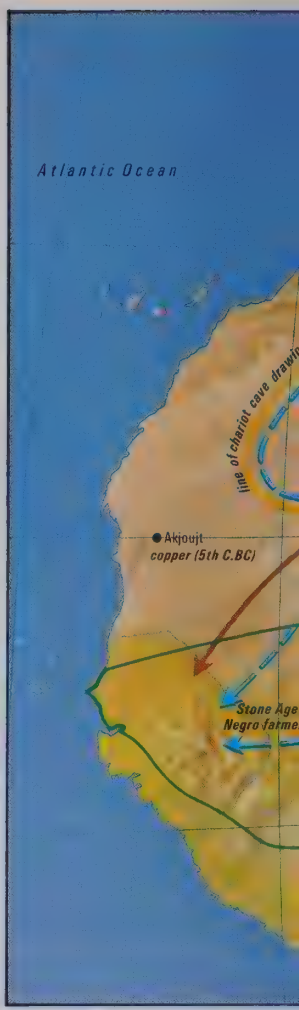
5 The Indus civilisations of Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro
pre-Harappan settlements
principal sites of Harappan civilisation
Mundigak
R. Zhob
Periano Ghundai
R. Jhelum
R. Chenab
R. Ravi
R. Beas
(Kojla Nihang Khan)
Rupar
Rana Ghundai
Harappa
Punjab
Kili Ghul Mohammad
Damb Sadaat
Quetta
Chak Purbane Syal
R. Sutlej
Dabarkot
R. Indus
Togau
Sandhanawala
Kalibanga
Siah Damb
Judeirjo-Daro
Alamgirpur
Anjira
Rohri
11 sites in Bahawalpur State
Baluchistan
Nal
Mohenjo-Daro
Kotasur
Mehi
Nindowari
Diji-li-Takri
Kot Diji
Nokjo Shahdinzai
Lohumjo-Daro
Rajasthan
Nundara
Pandi Wahi
Lohri
Kulli
Mitha Deheno
Ali Murad
Thar (Indian) Desert
Shahi Tump
Ghazi Shah
Damb Buthi
Gorandi
Chanhu-Daro
Sotka-Koh
Dhal
Amri
Sutkagen-Dor
Bala-Kot
Karchat
Shahjo-Kotiro
Kotrash
Othmanto Buthi
Sind
Allahdino
Tharro
Arabian Sea
Desalpur
Halar
Lothal
R. Narmada
Amara
Rangpur
Rojadi
Mehgam
Kinnarkheda
Telod
Bhagatrav
R. Tapti
Somnath
Gulf of Cambay
30°
26°
22°
76°

Prehistoric Africa and Australasia

Climatic change, setting in 5–6000 years ago, profoundly influenced the early history of Africa and Australasia. North Africa, belonging to the temperate Mediterranean belt, developed in close association with western Asia, and by 3000 BC an advanced civilisation was established in Egypt (page 16). But Africa south of the equator, almost certainly the original home of Man (page 2), was cut off from the mainstream for centuries by the desiccation of the Sahara. Similar changes occurred in Australia which had been populated during the late Pleistocene ice age via the land bridge from New Guinea (page 4). Here the rise of the sea level, due to temperature change, severed the links with South-East Asia, and the Australasian continent developed thenceforth in geographical isolation. The colonisation of the islands of Melanesia occurred considerably later, when settlers from New Guinea, associated with the distinctive Lapita pottery, reached Fiji (c.1300 BC) and then made their way into Polynesia via Tonga and Samoa, reaching the Marquesas Islands c.AD 300 (map 2). From here they spread north to Hawaii (c.AD 800) and south-west via the Cook Islands to New Zealand between 850 and 1100 (map 3).

Geographical isolation was an important factor in shaping the cultures of southern Africa and of Oceania. In Australia the aborigines remained hunters and gatherers. They did not herd or cultivate, and there was no use of iron. Elsewhere in Oceania, notably in New Zealand, a mixed hunting-farming society developed after the depletion of animal food resources, and settlement, originally coastal, spread inland. But population remained small, about 300,000 in Australia and 100,000 in New Zealand when the Europeans arrived. The isolation of southern Africa was never so complete. In East Africa settlers spread down the Rift Valley from Ethiopia during the first millennium BC, and trans-Saharan trade increased in importance after the introduction of the camel from Asia c.100 BC (map 1). This facilitated the spread of iron tools and weapons, introduced in the north from Asia in 663 BC, which reached the Jos Plateau in Nigeria by c.450 BC and became widespread in the south after c.AD 100. The coming of iron had revolutionary effects, leading to the displacement of the Stone Age hunters and gatherers by settled Bantu-speaking agricultural and cattle-raising societies. These established themselves in Katanga during the late Stone Age and expanded into the rest of southern Africa during the early Iron Age.





1 Africa: the Stone Age to the Iron Age
outside influences
areas of Stone Age agriculture
sites of Stone Age agriculture, pastoralism (dates shown when known)
Iron Age sites
areas of early agriculture or pastoral settlement
probable spread of early Iron Age settlements
spread of iron
possible spread of cattle-based cultures
iron and cattle
Utica
Carthage c.700 BC
Phoenician diaspora
iron (mid 1st millennium BC)
PHOENICIA
Greek settlements 680 BC
CYRENAICA
Lixus (Larache) 600-500 BC
Afro Mediterranean culture (Neolithic 4000 BC)
Mogador c.600 BC
Leptis (Homs)
Merimbe 3750 BC
Fayum 4300 BC
iron
Berbers (Afro-Asiatics)
Ghadames
Egyptians (Afro-Asiatics)
Saharan wet phase ending c.2500 BC
Tassili pastoral rock paintings 6000 2500 BC
Egypt ruled by Kushite pharaohs 750 644 BC
1st cataract of the Nile
EGYPTIAN NUBIA
centre of cattle dispersal
Jerma 5th C.AD
wheat and barley grown in Egypt no further south than 1st cataract of the Nile
HOGGAR
R. Nile
Red Sea
KUSH
NUBIA
KINGDOM OF KUSH c.900 BC-AD 400
TIBESTI
Adrar des Ifores
Napata
Shaheinab 3200 BC
Early Khartoum Neolithic
SABAEA
line of chariot cave drawings
TICHITT
Sahara Desert
iron?
Meroe 350 BC
iron?
Adulis
KINGDOM OF AXUM
(an offshoot of South Sabaean state)
Gao
cattle
DARFUR
Kushitic Peoples (Afro-Asiatics)
Stone Age farmers
Daima 500 BC
Sao 'culture' 500 BC
iron?
Kano
Nok
100 BC
R. Niger
Tarunga 450 BC
Nok 'culture'
Kaduna
wheat and barley introduced from south-west Arabia into Ethiopian highlands 2nd or 1st millennium BC
Douloumi AD 538
Jos Plateau Stone Age Negro farmers
Bouai
Megalithic site
Ntereso 1400 BC
Ife 7th 8th C.AD
Taruga 1st C.AD
Igbu Ukwu AD 840
Haut Sanga 1st C.AD
Lwewe AD 270
Kenyan Stone Bowl culture
Indian Ocean
Great Rift Valley
Ndora AD 250
Mwanza
Bombo Kaburi AD 270
R. Congo
Funa River c.270 BC
Luanza 5th C.AD
southern limit of Stone Age cattle
iron?
Tshikapa
KATANGA (SHABA)
Indonesian (Malay-Polynesian) trade and possible settlement 1st millennium onwards, introduced SE Asian foodstuffs bananas, Asiatic yams (tera), coconuts
Kalumbo AD 345
surface finds of dimple-based pottery Southern Savanna Neolithic
Sanga AD 220
Phopo Hill AD 295
Stone Age gatherers, fishermen and vegeculturalists
Kamnama AD 300
Kansanshi AD 400
Nkope Bay AD 300
R. Zambezi
Kapwirimbe AD 450
Ziwo AD 300
iron?
Kalundu (Kalemo) AD 300
Machili AD 96
iron and cattle
Gokomere AD 540
Lubusi AD 800
Zimbabwe I.
iron and cattle (Khoikoi Peoples)
Leopards kopje
Mabueni AD 180
Malapati AD 840
Kalahari Desert
early Iron Age cattle
Palaborna AD 770
cattle
coastal settlement of Eastern Madagascar by Indonesian Iron Age migrants 1st millennium AD
Castle Cavern AD 520
Blackburn AD 105
cattle (Khoikoi Peoples)
2 Early Man in the South Seas
excavated Pleistocene site (older than 10,000 years)
the Lapita potters:
Lapita pottery area
Lapita sites
other contemporary Melanesian pottery
settlement of Polynesia:
settled by 'Lapita people' c.1100 BC
Polynesian-like material culture by AD 300
settlement by 'Lapita people' c. AD300
primary dispersal centre AD 400-850
initial settlement voyages
Marquesas Is.
Archipelago
Pitcairn I.
Easter I.

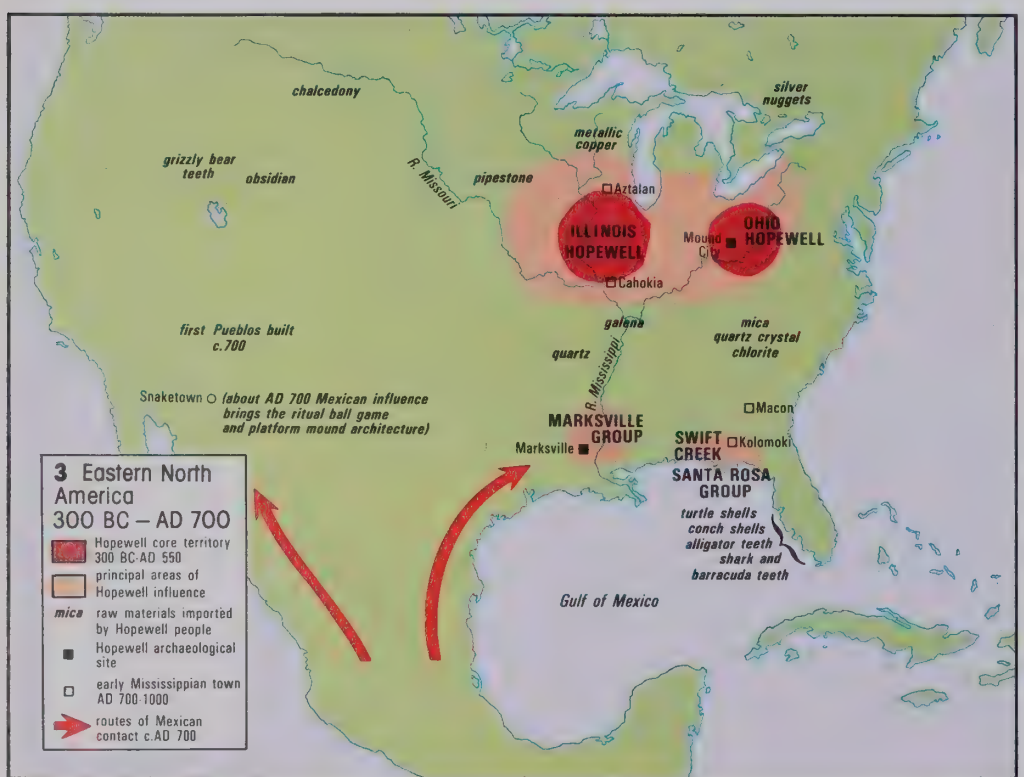
Peoples and cultures of the Americas

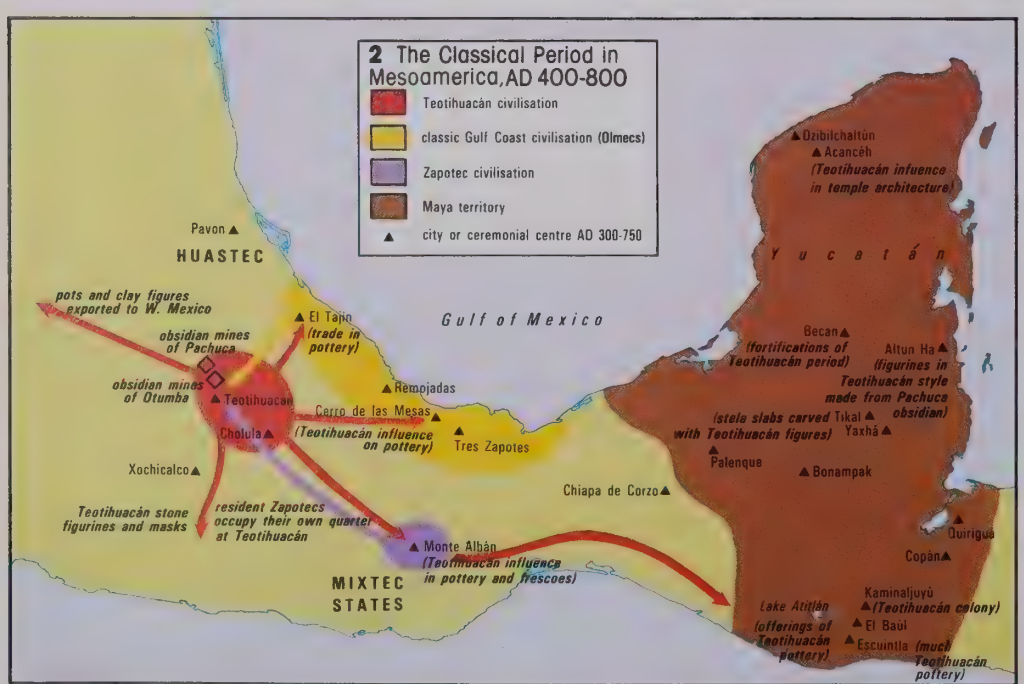
America, like Australia (page 10), was colonised from Asia during the last cold age 30,000 or more years ago, and like Australia was later cut off from the Old World by the melting of the ice and the rise of the sea level which submerged the land bridge across the Bering Strait (page 4). Unlike the Australian aborigines, however, who never progressed beyond a Stone Age hunting and gathering culture, geographic isolation did not prevent the American Indians from developing independently a high level of civilisation, based on agriculture (particularly the cultivation of maize), mining (particularly obsidian for tools and weapons), pottery manufacture and gold, silver and copper working. It was a civilisation distinguished not only by magnificent art and remarkable mathematical and astronomical skills, but also by monumental building on a grand scale. In its prime, around AD 600, the city of Teotihuacán in the basin of Mexico covered 20 sq. km (8 sq. miles) and had a population of 125,000.

The first civilisations arose in the climatically favourable regions of Mesoamerica and the central Andes, where maize farming, permitting a rapid increase in population, became widespread from c.1500 BC. By 1000 BC the Olmecs on the Gulf of Mexico, the Zapotecs at Monte Albán, and the inhabitants of Chavín in Peru had established states with populations numbering tens of thousands, a priesthood, a civil service, and a hierarchy of social classes including craftsmen and traders (map 2). Mesoamerica and the central Andes remained the main centres of civilisation, but the diffusion of agriculture and growing commercial exchanges soon affected other regions. In North America the introduction of maize, beans and squashes from Mexico initiated a period of rapid development between 300 BC and AD 550. Its centre was the Hopewell territory in Illinois and Ohio, but trading contacts (mainly for precious metals) extended its influence as far as Florida and the Rockies (map 3). In South America a number of separate centres, each with its own distinctive artistic style, developed in the Andes (map 4), and were fused after AD 600 into the empires of Tiahuanaco and Huari (map 5). But this precarious unity broke down after AD 800 and it was not until the fifteenth century under the Incas that Peru was once again united (page 62).

In Mesoamerica the early Olmec and Zapotec civilisations were submerged by invaders coming from the north, first the Maya who reached Yucatán by the fifth century AD, then the Toltecs in the eleventh century, and finally the Aztecs in the thirteenth century. The classic period of Maya civilisation falls between AD 300 and AD 900; but influences radiating from Teotihuacán were strong (map 2), and Maya civilisation, like all the other civilisations of the classical period, was essentially a variant of a common Mesoamerican culture pattern. Internecine warfare appears to have weakened these civilisations and left them prey to invaders from the north. Teotihuacán was destroyed c.750, Monte Albán allowed to go to ruin during the tenth century, and Maya civilisation collapsed between AD 800 and 900.

For all their brilliant architectural and artistic achievements, the civilisations of Mesoamerica and the Andes account for only a small area of the Americas taken as a whole (map 1). Climatic variation alone dictated disparate ways of life. Particularly in the far north and far south, where conditions were too harsh for farming, the small nomadic populations depended on hunting and fishing. Climate was also a determining factor for the desert gatherers in the interior. The continent the Europeans encountered when they arrived in the sixteenth century was at widely different levels of development; but even the simpler societies, far removed from the centres of civilisation, had adapted themselves to the environment and its requirements.





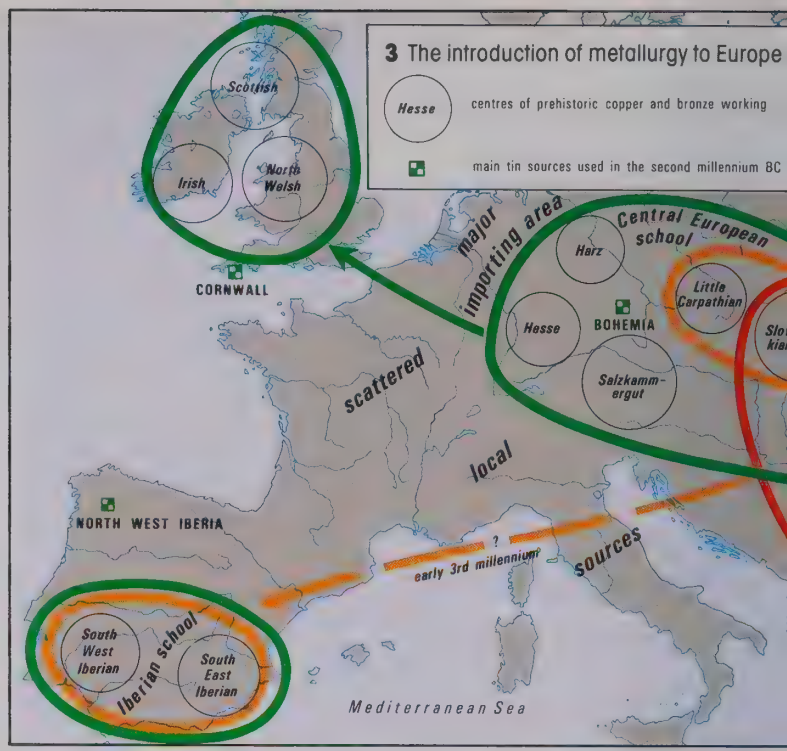
Asia
Bering Strait
ARCTIC LITTORAL HUNTERS
HUNTERS OF THE SUB-ARCTIC FOREST
(ESKIMO)
PLATEAU FISHERMEN PLANT GATHERERS HUNTERS
PLAINS HUNTERS
farming introduced along river valleys from eastern woodlands
DESERT GATHERERS
FISHERMEN MONTANE GATHERERS
S.W. FARMERS
PUEBLO INDIANS
WOODLAND FARMERS
DESERT GATHERERS FISHERMEN SHELLFISH COLLECTORS
DESERT GATHERERS
L'Anse aux Meadows
(Norse colony, founded by Icelanders AD 1001 but soon abandoned)
Atlantic Ocean
Gulf of Mexico
El Tajin
Teotihuacán
Monte Albán
Tikal
MESOAMERICAN CIVILISATION
MAYA
CARIBBEAN FARMERS
Caribbean Sea
MAIZE AND MANIOC CULTIVATORS OF CARIBBEAN LOWLANDS
SAVANNAH FARMERS
NORTH ANDEAN CHIEFDOMS
Pacific Ocean
FARMING TRIBES
(manioc cultivators)
of the Amazon Rain Forest
Moche
Chavín
CENTRAL ANDEAN CIVILISATION
Huari
Nasca
Tiahuanaco
SAVANNAH FARMERS
about AD 500 farming introduced from Amazon Basin into Brazilian forest and savannah
immigration of Tupi-Guaraní tribes
HUNTERS OF THE CHACO SAVANNAH
GRASSLAND STEPPE HUNTERS
MARITIME HUNTERS
SHELLFISH COLLECTORS
WARU
Lake Titicaca
TIAHUANACO
Tiahuanaco
ATACAMEÑO
Piquillacta
Lake Titicaca
Tiahuanaco
TIAHUANACO EMPIRE
1 American peoples and cultures, c. AD 500
farming peoples
chiefdoms
civilised states
hunters and gatherers
archaeological site

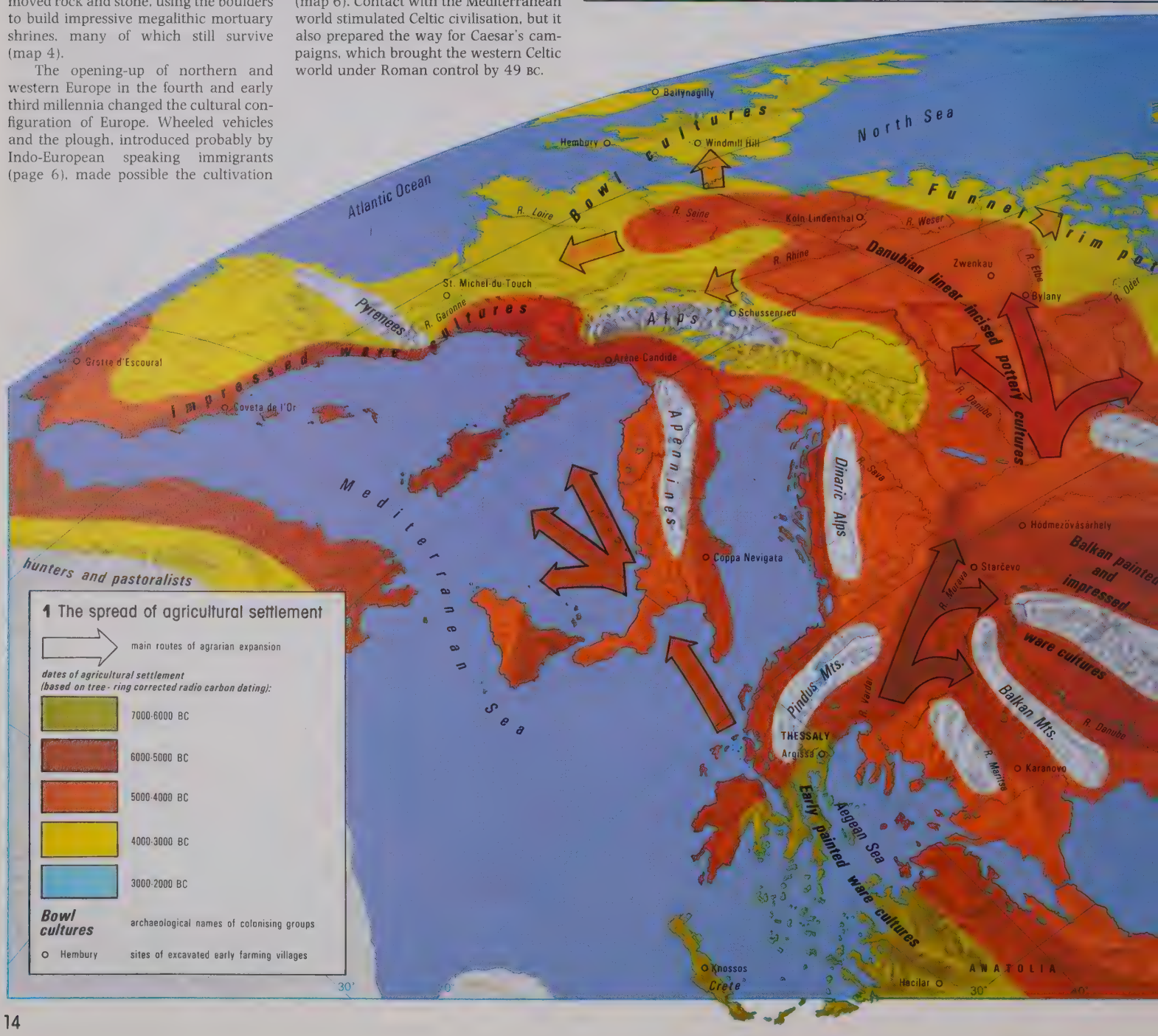
The colonisation of Europe, 6000-300 BC

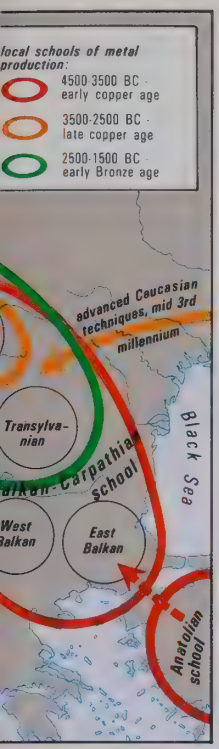
Settlers from Anatolia, one of the original homes of agriculture (page 6), crossed the Aegean to Thessaly and Crete c.6000 BC. From there different groups, identifiable by their pottery, moved north and west reaching the British Isles c.4000 BC (map 1). About this time metallurgy, which originated in the copper belt of the Near East (map 2), was introduced into the Balkans and spread to Iberia and central Europe, where rich mineral deposits were available (map 3). Two main routes of colonisation were followed: the Mediterranean littoral and the Vardar-Danube-Rhine corridor to the north European plain and to the south Russian steppes. In the Mediterranean zone fishing, maritime trade, and the cultivation of vines and olives laid the economic foundations of Mycenaean civilisation (page 18). In the northern belt the economy was based on grazing (sheep and cattle) and cereals (predominantly wheat). Clearing the land as they went, the settlers slashed and burnt the inland forests, while on the Atlantic coast and the boulder-strewn moraines of north-west Europe they removed rock and stone, using the boulders to build impressive megalithic mortuary shrines, many of which still survive (map 4).

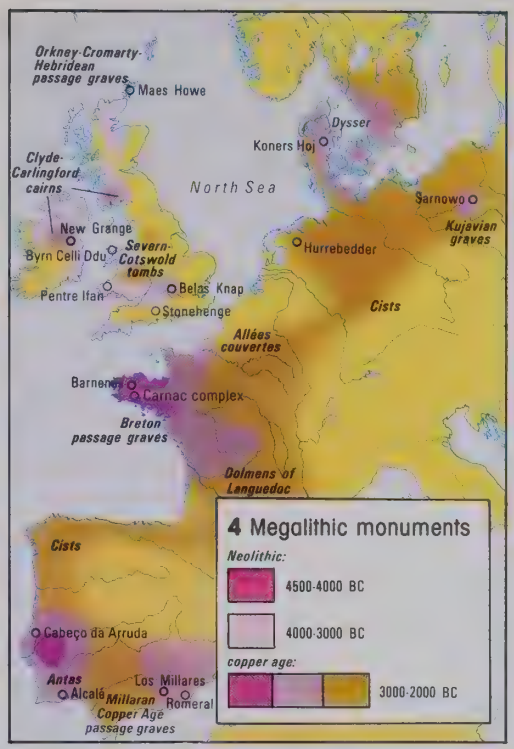
The opening-up of northern and western Europe in the fourth and early third millennia changed the cultural configuration of Europe. Wheeled vehicles and the plough, introduced probably by Indo-European speaking immigrants (page 6), made possible the cultivation of heavier soils. The result was a great increase in the population of Europe north of the Alps, and also the beginning of a more closely articulated political organisation, centred upon hill-forts where the aristocracy resided. The main focus of these developments, greatly stimulated by the introduction (1000–800 BC) of ironworking, was the territory of the so-called 'Urnfield culture' – a complex of related peoples in central Europe which dominated the Rhine-Danube axis. About 1000 BC these tribes expanded into adjacent areas. Their four main branches each gave rise to an important group of peoples: Celts in the west, Slavs in the north-east, Italic speakers in the south and Illyrians in the south-east (map 5).

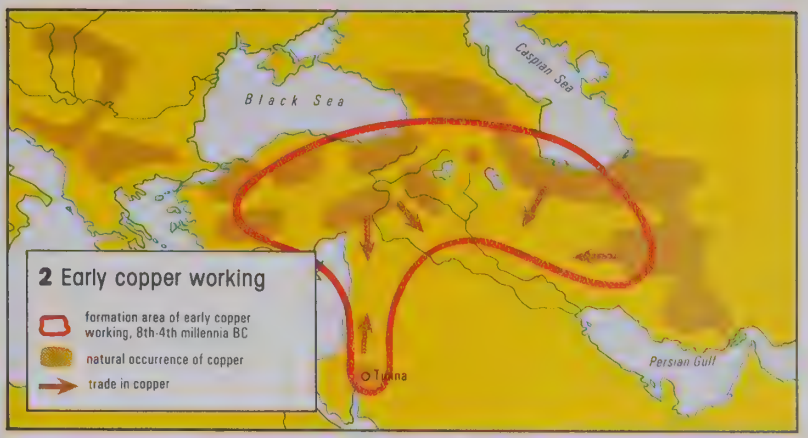
During the first millennium BC the Celtic areas expanded at the expense of their neighbours, particularly in the direction of modern France. Ironworking on an industrial scale and superior arms and equipment probably accounted for this advance, which occurred in two phases, named respectively after Hallstatt in Austria and La Tène in Switzerland. The later, La Tène, phase (450 BC onwards) saw the Celtic occupation of much of Britain, but its main feature was raiding and settlement in the south and east (map 6). Contact with the Mediterranean world stimulated Celtic civilisation, but it also prepared the way for Caesar's campaigns, which brought the western Celtic world under Roman control by 49 BC.

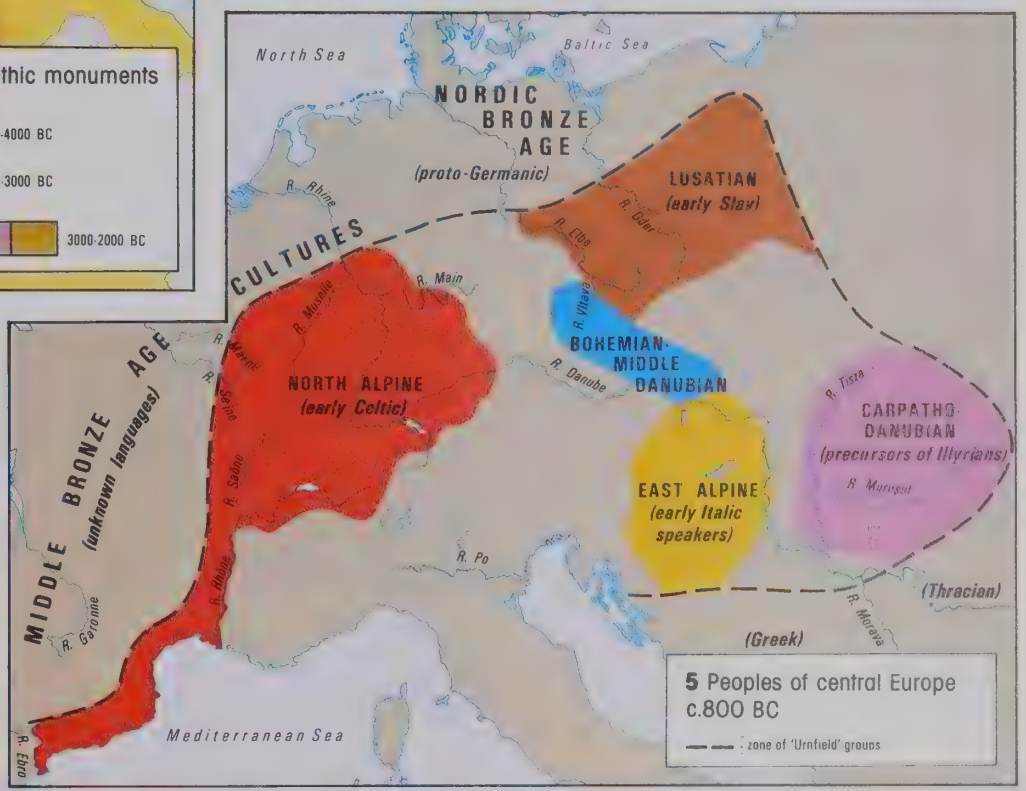


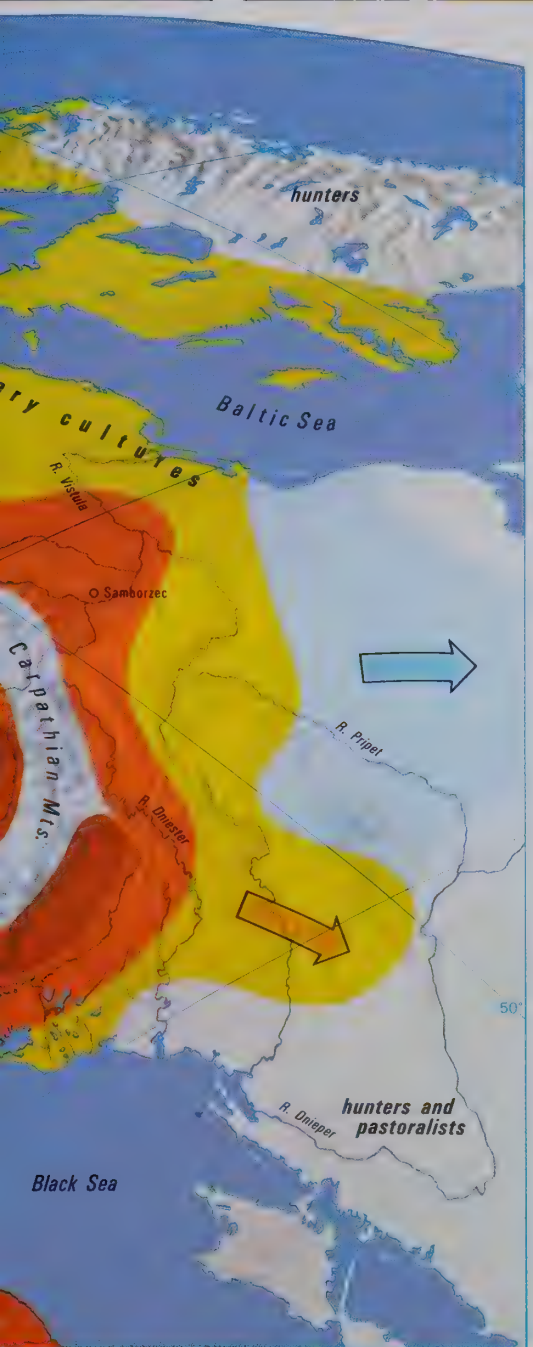



local schools of metal production:
4500-3500 BC early copper age
3500-2500 BC late copper age
2500-1500 BC early Bronze age
advanced Caucasian techniques, mid 3rd millennium
Transylvanian
Balkan-Carpathian school
West Balkan
East Balkan
Anatolian school
Black Sea


Orkney-Cromarty-Hebridean passage graves
Maes Howe
Dysser
Koners Hoj
Clyde-Carlingford cairns
North Sea
Sarnowo
Kujavian graves
New Grange
Byrn Celli Ddu
Severn-Cotswold tombs
Hurrebedder
Pentre Ifan
Belas Knap
Stonehenge
Cists
Allées couvertes
Barnenez
Carnac complex
Breton passage graves
Dolmens of Languedoc
Cabeço da Arruda
Antas
Alcalá
Los Millares
Millaran
Romeral
Copper Age passage graves
4 Megalithic monuments
Neolithic:
4500-4000 BC
4000-3000 BC
copper age:
3000-2000 BC


Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Persian Gulf
Tyana
2 Early copper working
formation area of early copper working, 8th-4th millennia BC
natural occurrence of copper
trade in copper


North Sea
Baltic Sea
NORDIC BRONZE AGE
(proto-Germanic)
LUSATIAN
(early Slav)
CULTURES
R. Rhine
R. Elbe
R. Oder
R. Main
R. Moselle
R. Vltava
BOHEMIAN-MIDDLE DANUBIAN
R. Danube
R. Tisza
CARPATHO-DANUBIAN
(precursors of Illyrians)
R. Marosul
NORTH ALPINE
(early Celtic)
R. Saône
R. Rhône
MIDDLE BRONZE AGE
(unknown languages)
EAST ALPINE
(early Italic speakers)
R. Po
(Thracian)
R. Maritza
(Greek)
R. Garonne
Mediterranean Sea
R. Ebro
5 Peoples of central Europe c.800 BC
zone of 'Urnfield' groups


hunters
Baltic Sea
ry cultures
R. Vistula
Samborzec
Carpathian Mts.
R. Pripet
R. Dniester
50°
hunters and pastoralists
R. Dnieper
Black Sea

Atlantic Ocean
Traprain Law
Arras
Danebury
Bagendon
Colchester
Glastonbury
Hengistbury Head
Eigenbilzen
Court St. Etienne
Somme Bionne
Basse Yutz
Rheinheim
Hradenin
Vix
Heuneburg
La Tène
Hallstatt
Sopron
Vače
Rome 390 BC
Delphi 279 BC
Galatia 278 BC
R. Elbe
R. Vistula
R. Rhine
R. Saône
R. Garonne
R. Rhône
R. Po
R. Danube
R. Dniester
R. Dnieper
R. Ebro
Black Sea
Mediterranean Sea
6 The expansion of the Celts
area of major Celtic settlement and influence by 200 BC (early to middle La Tène culture)
principal inroads for plunder and partial settlement
movement of Celts 7th-6th centuries BC (mainly Hallstatt)
Celtic introduction to Britain and Ireland; nature of La Tène culture there uncertain
Early Iron Age sites (Hallstatt)
Late Iron Age sites (LaTène)

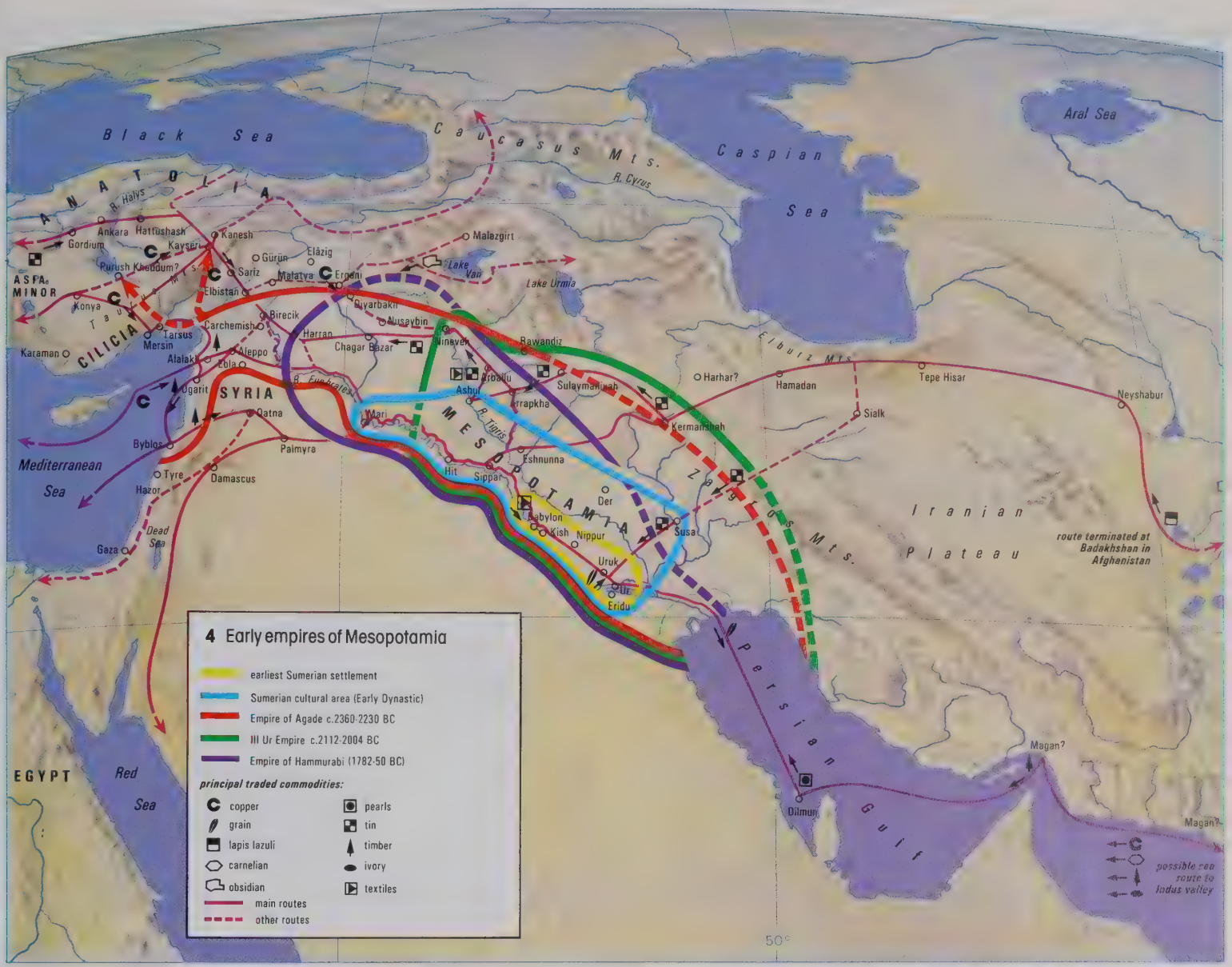
Mesopotamia and the Near East, 3500-1600 BC

The rise of the great riverine civilisations in the fertile valleys of the Nile in Egypt, the Euphrates and Tigris in Mesopotamia, and also (page 8) in the Indus valley in north-west India, was a decisive stage in the development of human society. Previously cereal cultivation in the foothills of the Taurus and Zagros mountains permitted agriculture and flourishing villages, even urban settlements on the scale of Catal Hüyük and Jericho to develop (page 6). But the alluvial valleys of Egypt and Mesopotamia offered far greater potential, provided that a social organisation was available to carry out the necessary irrigation operations. This led after 3500 BC to the growth of cities and city-states, distinguished by size, planning, architecture and fortifications (map 1). It also led, because of the need for accounting procedures related to the collection and distribution of agricultural surpluses among a large and increasingly urban population, to the invention of writing, originally pictographic, but developing into cuneiform on clay tablets in Mesopotamia and hieroglyphic in Egypt.

Because of geographical factors political unification came earlier in Egypt than in Mesopotamia. The Egyptian settlements coalesced early into two kingdoms, Upper (south) Egypt and Lower Egypt (the Delta), which were united by King Menes c.3100 BC with the capital at Memphis. In Mesopotamia the basic organisation until the second half of the third millennium BC remained one of Sumerian city states, with a shifting hegemony between them but no centralised control. Ethnic movements also affected the course of development (map 2). In Egypt, though different ethnic groups can be traced in prehistoric times, in the historical period there was no immigration of significance until the Hyksos early in the 2nd millennium BC (page 20). The Sumerians of southern Mesopotamia are thought by some historians to be indigenous, by others to be immigrants via Iran from central Asia; in either case, they were responsible for the earliest development of cities (map 3), as well as for the invention of writing. Another factor affecting developments across the ancient Near East in this period was the need to acquire scarce resources. South Mesopotamia lacked stone, metals and timber, which led the Sumerians to exploit the Zagros mountains and to develop trading relations with Iran and Asia Minor, as well as by sea to Dilmun on the Persian Gulf. Egypt was more self-sufficient, but here also the need for timber stimulated trade with Syria, and Syria served as a link between Egypt and Mesopotamia.

The first significant attempt at empire in Mesopotamia came when Sargon (2371–16 BC), of Akkadian immigrant descent, founded the city of Agade (site uncertain) and made it his task to bring the old Sumerian city states under centralised control (map 4). From this base he and his successors, notably his grandson, Naram-Sin (2291–55 BC), undertook conquests from Elam in south-west Iran to Syria, including the recently excavated city of Ebla, and possibly also into central Asia Minor. Motivated by trade, this expansion extended sea-links which probably reached as far east as the Indus valley.

The subsequent course of events was complicated by the repeated incursions of mainly Semites, Hurrians and the Indo-European Hittites. Each of these peoples played political roles of considerable importance. Sargon's empire collapsed as a result of internal stresses and the invasion of hillmen from the central Zagros, and was followed by a revival of the Sumerian city-state system, in which Ur emerged as the dominant element. This was a highly bureaucratic empire, more stable than that of Agade; but it collapsed in turn (c.2000 BC) under the pressure of a new wave of Semitic invaders, the Amorites from the Syrian desert, who established control over the whole region from Syria to southern Mesopotamia, where they set up a number of small kingdoms, among which Assyria and Babylon eventually won pre-eminence. The former emerged under the Amorite Shamshi-Adad I (1813–1781 BC), who annexed the kingdom of Mari on the middle Euphrates and formed a powerful state extending from the Zagros mountains to the border of the Anatolian plateau. But the pre-eminence of Assyria was short-lived, and after Shamshi-Adad's death its place was taken by Babylon under Hammurabi (1792–50 BC). By the seventeenth century BC a new power centre was developing further north, in Anatolia, where the Hittites set up a kingdom with its capital at Hattushash. After 1650 BC they began to spread southwards and in 1595 they sacked Babylon. In the dislocation which ensued the first Babylonian dynasty collapsed; but the ideal of a single south Mesopotamian kingdom with Babylon as its capital, survived as Hammurabi's enduring legacy.


Black Sea
Caucasus Mts.
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
R. Cyrus
ANATOLIA
R. Halys
Ankara
Hattushash
Kanesh
Gordium
Kayseri
Gürün
Elâzig
Sariz
Malatya
Ercani
Malazgirt
Lake Van
Lake Urmia
ASIA MINOR
Purush Khaddum?
Elbistan
Konya
Tarsus
Mersin
Carchemish
Birecik
Harran
Chagar Bazar
Nusaybin
Qiyarbakir
Nineveh
Rawandiz
Alalakh
Aleppo
Ebla
Karaman
CILICIA
Ugarit
SYRIA
R. Euphrates
Ashur
Arbailu
Sulaymaniyah
Arrapkha
Harhar?
Hamadan
Tepe Hisar
Neyshabur
Sialk
Kermanshah
Elburz Mts.
Mari
R. Tigris
MESOPOTAMIA
Qatna
Palmyra
Byblos
Tyre
Hazor
Damascus
Mediterranean Sea
Dead Sea
Gaza
Hit
Sippar
Eshnunna
Der
Babylon
Kish
Nippur
Susa
Uruk
Ur
Eridu
Zagros Mts.
Iranian Plateau
route terminated at Badakhshan in Afghanistan
Persian Gulf
Dilmun
Magan?
EGYPT
Red Sea
possible sea route to Indus valley
50°
4 Early empires of Mesopotamia
earliest Sumerian settlement
Sumerian cultural area (Early Dynastic)
Empire of Agade c.2360-2230 BC
III Ur Empire c.2112-2004 BC
Empire of Hammurabi (1782-50 BC)
principal traded commodities:
copper
grain
lapis lazuli
carnelian
obsidian
pearls
tin
timber
ivory
textiles
main routes
other routes

GUTIANS
R. Tigris
R. Diyala
(Abu Rasain)
Eshnunna
(Tell Agrab)
Tutub
KASSITES
AKKAD
Agade?
capital of Akkad dynasty (2371-2230 BC)
Sippar
(Uqair)
Kutha
(Jemdet Nasr)
Murik Tidnim
Lake Habbaniyah
approximate position of Murik Tidnim defence line built against threat of West Semite invasion c.1965 BC
approximate old course of Euphrates
Kish
predominant city state c.3000 BC
Ituranga
(Abu Salabikh)
Nippur
religious centre
Adab
(Jidr)
Zabalam
Umma
(Abu Hatab)
Isin
Shuruppak
contested fertile plain
Girsu
Lagash
Nina
Bad-Tibira
Larsa
Uruk
SUMER
R. Euphrates
Shatt al Arab
Shatt al Hai
probable lagoon from Gulf
Ur
Eridu
Persian Gulf
R. Tigris
Zagros Mts
ELAM
Susa
Elamite capital
3 Sumerian Mesopotamia, c. 2500-2000 BC
former major watercourse
possible former watercourse
(Uqair) modern name; Sumerian period name unknown
fertile alluvial plain

The early Mediterranean world

The first European civilisation was that of Minoan Crete. The Cretans had bronze tools and weapons, systems of writing, and they were ruled by kings for whom they built spacious palaces at centres like Knossos. The earliest inhabitants of mainland Greece and the Aegean islands were probably related to the Cretans in speech and race, but shortly before 2000 BC the northern islands and parts of the mainland were overrun by peoples from Anatolia. A few centuries later groups from the north infiltrated the mainland and reached the Peloponnese.

Crete was unaffected by these movements and became exceedingly prosperous. Her rulers established colonies throughout the Aegean islands, of which the most important appears to have been Akrotiri on Thera. This period of expansion reached a climax about 1500 BC. Meanwhile powerful states arose on the mainland at Mycenae and elsewhere, some of which may have been tributary to Crete as later Greek legends hint. About 1450 BC invaders from the Greek mainland overran Crete, burning many of the towns and palaces, but preserving Knossos as their capital. In the fourteenth century a mixed civilisation, the Mycenaean, related to the Minoan, spread throughout the Aegean. Around 1300 BC the palace of Knossos was finally destroyed, and the whole Aegean probably became an empire ruled from Mycenae (map 1).

Shortly before 1200 BC Mycenae and other mainland centres were destroyed by invaders who may have been Greeks (map 2). Refugees escaping from them settled in islands like Naxos and Crete; some made their way to Italy, others to Cyprus and to Tarsus in Cilicia. Meanwhile Armenians and Phrygians from the Balkans overthrew the Hittite empire in Anatolia. Groups expelled by them moved southwards and devastated Syria; some from coastal regions of Anatolia – the Sea Peoples of Egyptian records – occupied Enkomi in Cyprus and sailing against Egypt allied themselves with the Libyans to be defeated by the pharaoh Merneptah in 1232 BC. About fifty years later Ramesses III defeated another coalition of Sea Peoples; but some including the Philistines afterwards settled in Palestine.

About 1100 BC the last wave of Greeks, the Dorians, overran most of western Greece and the Peloponnese as the eventual distribution of Greek dialects shows. The Arcadians, however, maintained themselves in the centre of the Peloponnese, and Greeks speaking a dialect related to Arcadian reached Cyprus around 1050 BC. About a century later other non-Dorian Greeks, the Ionians, established settlements in the eastern Aegean and on the Anatolian coast (map 3).

Writing and many of the arts disappeared from the Aegean during this period of dislocation. But this was an age of technical advance, with iron replacing bronze for tools and weapons. The new Greek world was divided between hundreds of small independent communities or city-states linked by similar religions and dialects. Writing was eventually reintroduced using the Phoenician alphabet. In the eighth century BC a period of colonial expansion began. This epoch-making movement, caused by land-hunger, political oppression and the attraction of trade, changed the whole face of the Mediterranean and spread Greek civilisation as far as the Black Sea in the east and to Sicily and Spain in the west, where it was to come into conflict with outposts of the Phoenician city state of Carthage (map 4).

1 The Aegean, 2500-1200 BC
frontiers of Mycenaean world c. 1300 BC
major Mycenaean palaces (c. 1500-1200 BC)
major Cretan palaces
smaller Cretan palaces
other important settlements
Cretan colonists and settlers c. 2500-1450 BC
invasions/migrations from Anatolia c. 2300/2200 BC
site with traces
possible invasion/migration from north c. 1900 BC
site with traces
MACEDONIA
THRACE
Mt. Olympus
Troy
Corcyra
Pevkakia
Iolcus
Lesbos
Leucas
Scyros
Ithaca
Orchomenos
Leykandi
Cirrha
Gla
Thebes
Chios
Evtresis
Athens
Aegean Sea
Mycenae
Ceos
Samos
Zacynthus
Lerna
Tiryns
Ayia Irini
Miletus
ANATOLIA
Khalandriani
PELOPONNESE
Delos
Syros
Pylos
Sparta
Naxos
Phylakopi
Melos
Thera
Cythera
Akrotiri
Kastri
Trianda
Rhodes
Mediterranean Sea
Carpathos
Khania
White Mountains
CRETE
Knossos
Katsamba
Amnisos
Nirou Khani
Mallia
Monastiraki
Mt. Ida
Kanli Kastelli
Arkhanes
Dictaean Cave
Pseira
Mokhlos
Palaiokastro
Idaean Cave
Mesara Plain
Gournia
Vasiliki
Zakro
Ayia Triadha
Phaistos
Mirtos

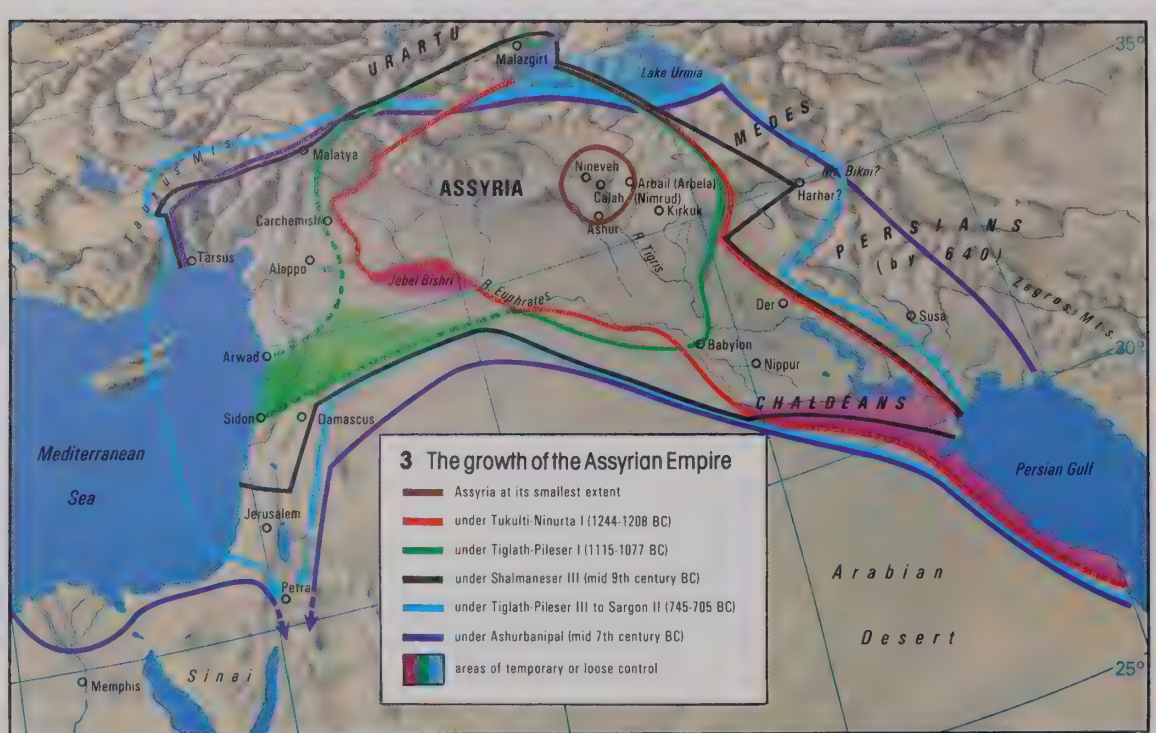
4 Greek colonisation, 750-550 BC
extent of Greece 750 BC
coast under Greek influence (approximate)
coast under Phoenician influence
Greek parent state or region
Ionian colony
Achaean colony
Aeolian colony
Dorian colony founded by Corinth
Dorian colony founded by Thera and Rhodes
Dorian colony founded by Megara or Sparta
other Greek colonies
Etruscan city
Punic or Phoenician city
Philistine city
Tanais
R. Dnieper
Sarmatians
Scythians
Olbia
Phanagoria
Panticapaeum
Pityus
COLCHIS
Dioscurias
Uphiusa
Theodosia
Phasis
Chersonesus
Black Sea
Istrus
Tomi
Callatis
Trapezus
Cromna
Sinope
Cotyora
Amisus
Cytorus
PONTUS
Tieum
Sesamus
PAPHLAGONIA
R. Danube
Odessus
Cruni
Mesembria
Apollonia
Heraclea Pontica
Celts
Etruscans
Illyrians
Byzantium
Chalcedon
BITHYNIA
THRACE
Selymbria
Perinthus
Astacus
Dascylium
Heraeumteichos
Cyzicus
PHRYGIA
Abdera
Aenus
Lampsacus
Sestus
MACEDONIA
Apollonia
Thasos
Abydus
Assus
ASIA MINOR
CILICIA
Epidamnus
EPIRUS
Potidaea
Torone
Lesbos
Mallus
Soli
Apollonia
Aulon
GREECE
Mende
MYSIA
Phocaea
Aspendus
Side
Celenderis
Aegean Sea
LYDIA
PAMPHYLIA
Chalcis
Eretria
Samos
Miletus
CARIA
Coracesium
Nagidus
Salamis
Xanthus
LYCIA
Phaselis
Idalium
Aradus
Cumae
Neapolis
Tarentum
Pithecusa
Posidonia
Elea
Callipolis
Corcyra
Leucas
Locris
Megara
Athens
CYPRUS
Citium
Paphos
Amathus
Curium
Achaea
Corinth
Patara
Rhodes
Byblos
Sidon
Tyre
PHOENICIA
Thera
Joppa
Ashdod
Ascalon
Gath
Gaza
Gerar
CRETE
Hippo Zarytus
Utica
Carthage
MALTA
Hippo Regius
Hadrumetum
Thapsus
Mediterranean Sea
Naucratis
NUMIDIA
Thenae
Syrtis Minor
Cyrene
Apollonia
Tauchira
Barca
Euhesperides
EGYPT
Sabrata
Oea
Leptis
Syrtis Major
TRIPOLIS
R. Nile
Massilia
Antipolis
Nicaea
Herculis Monoeci
Volaterrae
Arretium
Agathe
Athenopolis
Populonia
Cortona
Olbia
Ilva
Volsinii
Vetulonia
Volci
Tarquinii
Caere
ITALY
Adriatic Sea
CORSICA
Alalia
Aphrodisias
Emporiae
Tarraco
Saguntum
BALEARIC ISLANDS
Mago
SARDINIA
Hemeroskopeion
MAGNA GRAECIA
Sybaris
Croton
Hipponium
Scylacium
Lipara
Rhegium
Locri
Panormus
Himera
Messana
Lilybaeum
SICILY
Naxos
Selinus
Gela
Megara-Hyblaea
Acragas
Syracuse
Camarina
R. Rhône

Egypt and the Near East, c.1600-330 BC

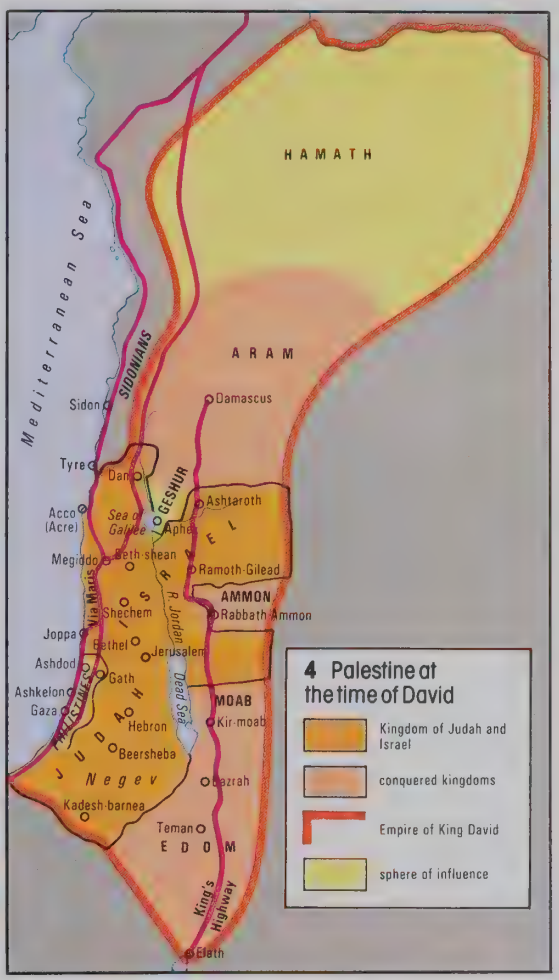
Because of their fabulous wealth the lands of the Fertile Crescent were always subject to assault from barbarian charioteers from adjoining steppes and mountains, jealous of their civilisation and greedy for their riches. Egypt alone was sheltered by the desert; but even Egypt fell prey about 1730 BC to an Asiatic people known as the Hyksos, who conquered the Delta and the Nile valley as far as Cusae, and ruled there until 1567 BC. By then Egypt's greatest age, marked by the pyramids of Cheops and Giza (c.2590 BC) and the artistic renaissance of the XIIth dynasty (1991–1786 BC), was over (map 1). But the Hyksos occupation stimulated a great revival and, under the XVIIIth dynasty (1570–1320 BC), a policy of expansion was initiated to preclude any further occupation. Egypt advanced through Palestine into Syria (map 2), and created an empire which extended almost to the Euphrates for the next thousand years.

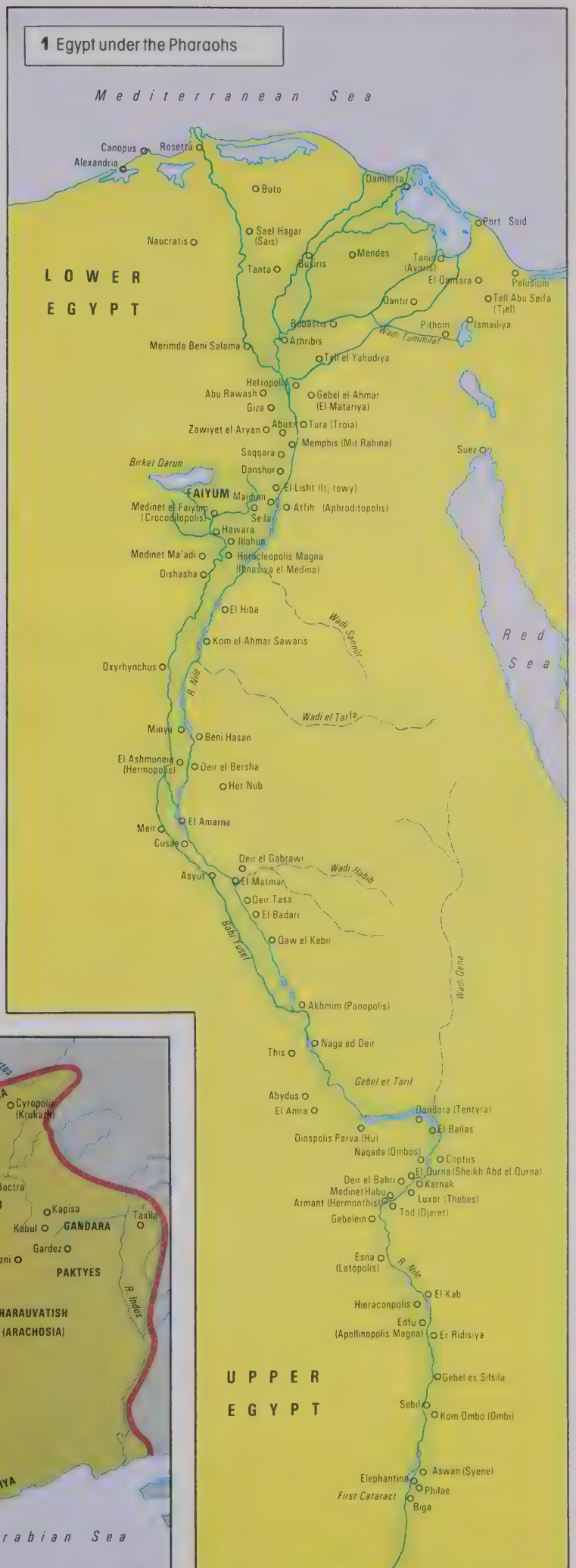
Elsewhere the course of events was more involved as from 1600 to 500 BC one empire after another succumbed to the assaults of barbarian tribes armed, after 1100 BC, with iron weapons. The Hittite empire (map 2), predominant in Anatolia and Syria c.1350 BC, fell about 1250 to violent ethnic movements from the Aegean. The Mitanni and Hurri, after expanding towards the Mediterranean, were squeezed between the Hittites and Assyria, which threw off Mitannian overlordship c.1380 BC; into this gap infiltrated Semitic and other tribes, Philistines, Aramaeans, Hebrews, Phrygians, Chaldeans and Medes, who attempted to seize power in the older centres of civilisation. This power vacuum enabled the Israelites under David (c.1006–966 BC) to create a kingdom briefly controlling Palestine and Syria (map 4); but after Solomon (966–926 BC) the kingdom, inherently unstable because of its disparate tribal origins, quickly disintegrated. But change and fluidity, chaotic though their consequences were, had the effect of breaking down old geographical and cultural barriers and beginning the process of fusing the whole region into a single cosmopolitan society, over which, after 539 BC, Persia established hegemony.

The immediate beneficiary was As-



syria, the political successor of the Mitanni (map 3). But under Ashurbanipal (668–627 BC), the assault of Medes and Scythians, combined with domestic revolt in Babylonia, brought Assyrian power to ruin. The capital Nineveh was destroyed in 612 BC, and Assyria disappeared for ever in 605 BC. After an interlude in which Medes, Chaldeans and Egyptians divided the legacy, another semi-barbarian conqueror, Cyrus the Persian, rebelled against his Median overlord, captured the Median capital Ecbatana in 550 BC, and quickly overran most of the Middle East. When his son Cambyses (529–522 BC) conquered Egypt (525 BC), the Persian empire extended from the Nile to the Oxus (map 5). The ancient world was united under one administration, the barbarians were overawed. But now a new enemy arose in the west, where Persian attempts to subdue the Greek colonies in Asia Minor (page 18) brought conflict with European Greece. As early as 479 BC Persian attempts to subdue Athens were defeated. A century and a half later Alexander of Macedon destroyed the Persian empire (page 22), and the predominant role of Western Asia in history came to an end.

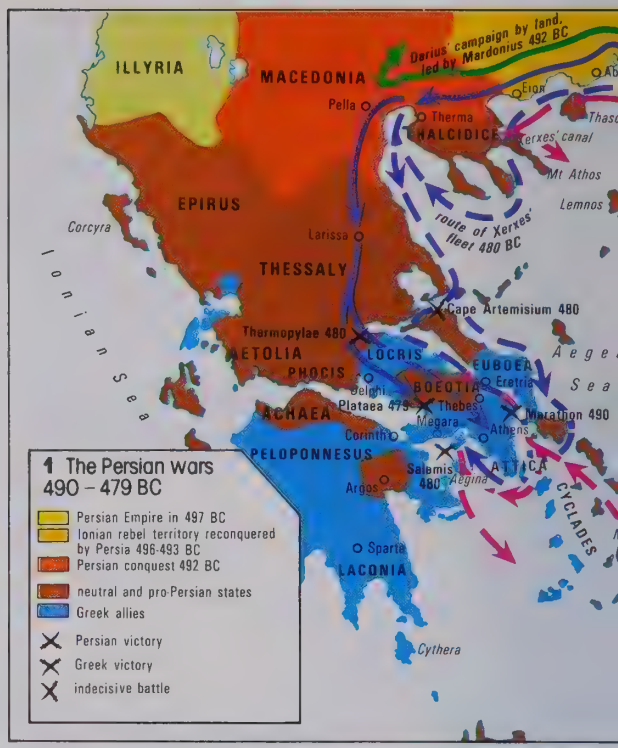


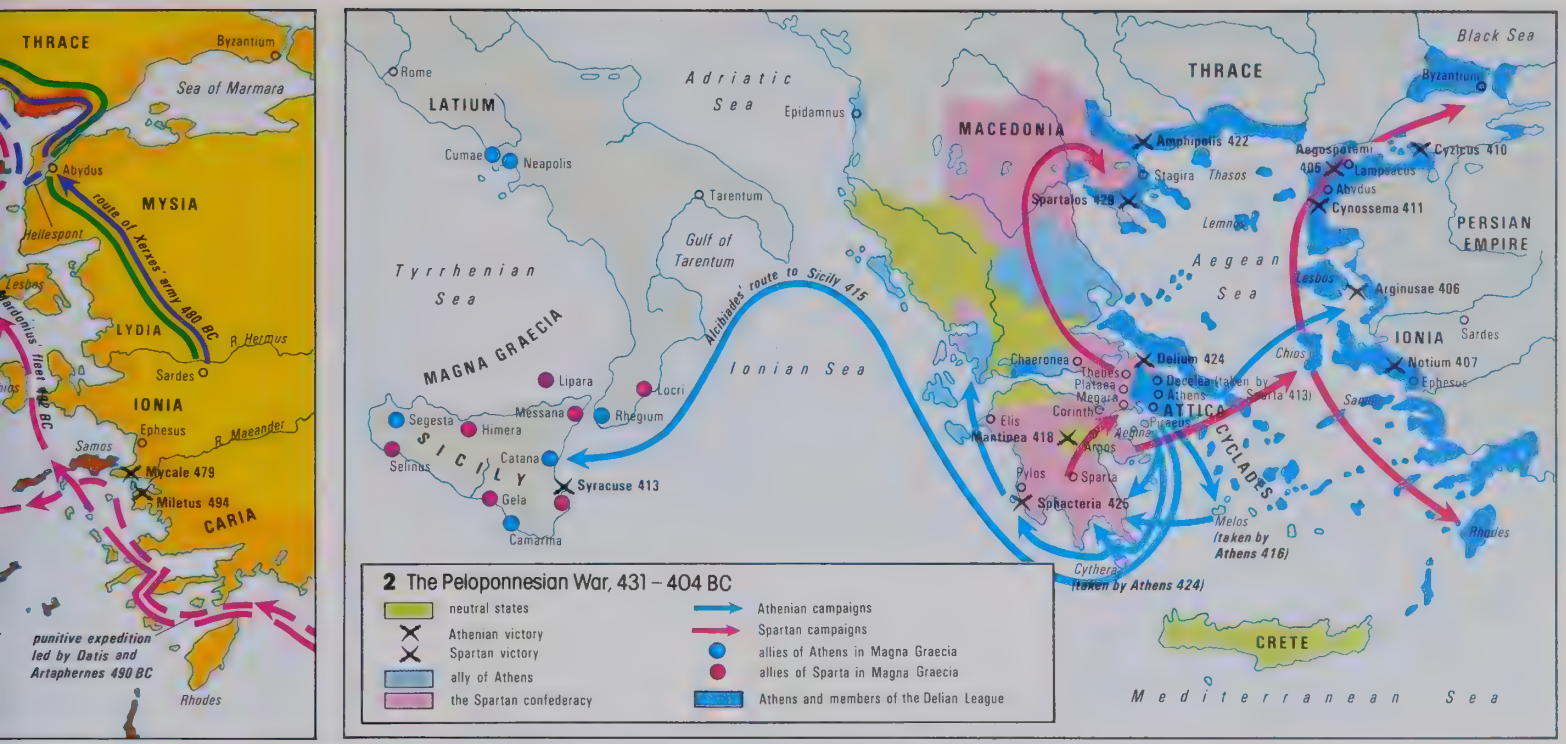


The Greek world
497-185 BC

The fifth century BC was the great age of Greece – the age of Pericles and Socrates, of Sophocles and Euripides, of the Parthenon and the sculptures of Phidias. It was also the century when internal strains (the growing conflict between oligarchy and democracy) and internecine war undermined the stability of the Greek city states and their ability to withstand external pressures. Colonisation had already carried Greek civilisation and Greek city life to Asia Minor (page 18). But here it came up against the Persian empire under Darius and Xerxes (page 20). Persian attempts to subdue Athens, which had been supporting the rebellious Ionians, were almost miraculously defeated at Marathon (490) and Salamis (480), (map 1). But thereafter the cities which had united against Persia fell apart, and the Peloponnesian war between Athens and Sparta and their allies (map 2) permanently weakened Greek resistance, and ensured the victory of Philip of Macedon (338). Under Philip's son, Alexander the Great, Macedonia became a world power, its dominion stretching from the Adriatic to India (map 3). Alexander's death in 323 BC at the age of 32 prevented the consolidation of his empire. In the succeeding struggles between his generals three major powers arose: Macedonia, shorn of its Asiatic conquests but still dominant in northern Greece; Egypt under the Ptolemies, with its capital at Alexander's newly founded city of Alexandria; and the Seleucid kingdom comprising the bulk of the Persian empire (map 4). To these were added in the east the Bactrian kingdom, extending over Afghanistan into northern India, and the Parthian empire, founded in 247 BC when a dissident provincial governor broke away from the Bactrian Greeks. This Parthian state eventually stretched from the Euphrates to the Indus and successfully withstood Roman expansion until it was displaced in AD 224 by a resurgent Persia under the Sasanian dynasty.

Although politically the empire of Alexander the Great proved ephemeral, in other respects its consequences were epoch-making. Alexander himself founded some 70 cities, not merely as military strongholds but as cultural centres – a policy continued by his Seleucid successors – and thus carried Greek civilisation far to the east. Greek culture was now no longer the preserve of separate city-states but infused and Hellenised the whole civilised world (*oikoumene*) as far as India and China. Greek itself became the *lingua franca* of the whole region, though more subtly the Greek world itself was permeated by oriental influences as its contacts with the ancient civilisations of the Near East intensified. When Rome asserted control over the Hellenistic world after its defeat of Macedon at Cynoscephalae in 197 and of the Seleucids at Magnesia in 190 BC, this was its inheritance; and the longer the Roman empire existed, the greater was the part played by the Hellenic and oriental elements in its civilisation.




THRACE
Byzantium
Sea of Marmara
Abydus
MYSIA
route of Xerxes' army 480 BC
Hellespont
LYDIA
R. Hermus
Sardes
IONIA
Ephesus
R. Maeander
Samos
Mycale 479
Miletus 494
CARIA
punitive expedition led by Datis and Artaphernes 490 BC
Rhodes
Rome
LATIUM
Adriatic Sea
Epidamnus
Cumae
Neapolis
Tarentum
Gulf of Tarentum
Tyrrhenian Sea
MAGNA GRAECIA
Alcibiades' route to Sicily 415
Ionian Sea
Lipara
Locri
Segesta
Himera
Messana
Rhegium
SICILY
Selinus
Catana
Syracuse 413
Gela
Camarina
MACEDONIA
Amphipolis 422
Stagira
Thasos
Spartolos 429
Lemnos
Aegean Sea
THRACE
Black Sea
Byzantium
Aegospotami 405
Lampsacus
Cyzicus 410
Abydus
Cynossema 411
PERSIAN EMPIRE
Lesbos
Arginusae 406
IONIA
Sardes
Chios
Notium 407
Ephesus
Samos
Chaeronea
Delium 424
Thebes
Plataea
Megara
Athens
Corinth
Decelea taken by Sparta 413
ATTICA
Piraeus
Aegina
CYCLADES
Elis
Mantinea 418
Argos
Pylos
Sparta
Sphacteria 425
Melos (taken by Athens 416)
Cythera (taken by Athens 424)
Rhodes
CRETE
Mediterranean Sea
2 The Peloponnesian War, 431 – 404 BC
neutral states
Athenian victory
Spartan victory
ally of Athens
the Spartan confederacy
Athenian campaigns
Spartan campaigns
allies of Athens in Magna Graecia
allies of Sparta in Magna Graecia
Athens and members of the Delian League

Aral Sea
R. Jaxartes (Syr Darya)
SCYTHIA
CHORASMII
R. Oxus (Amu Darya)
MASSAGETAE
Tashkent
Alexandria Eschate
Caspian Sea
DAHAE
Susia (Bukhara)
Maracanda (Samarkand)
Cyropolis
Nautaca (Karshi)
Derbent
Sogdian Rock (besieged 328)
Alexandria (Merv)
SOGDIANA
Bojnurd
Meshed
Amol
Zadracarta
Hecatompylos
Rhagae (Teheran)
Thara
HYRCANIA
MARDI
Susia
Caspian Gates
PARTHIA
BACTRIA
Bactra (Balkh)
Drapsaca
ARIA
Artacoana
Alexandria Areion (Herati)
Alexandria ad Caucasum
Salt Desert
Nicaea
Nysa
PARAETACENE
COSSAEI
UXII
Gabae
DRANGIANA
Alexandria Prophthasia
R. Erymanthus (Helmand)
Alexandria (Ghazni)
Hindu Kush
Aornos
Taxila
KINGDOM OF ABHISARA
Bucephala
326
Nicaea
R. Indus
KINGDOM OF PORUS
R. Hydaspes (Jhelum)
R. Chenab
Sangala
R. Hydraotes (Ravi)
R. Hyphasis (Beas)
Alexandria Arachoton (Kandahar)
Nad-i-Ali
ARACHOSIA
CARMANIA
Pasargadae
Persian Gates
Persepolis
SEISTAN
Quetta
Multan
R. Sutlej
Alexandria (Gulashkird)
GEDROSIA
Alexandria Sogdiana
Pura
Harmozia
Persian Gulf
Las Bela
ORITAE
Gwadar
Pasni
Kokala
Alexandria
Pattala
City of the Brahmans
probable ancient course of R. Indus
Indian Desert
INDIA
Indian Ocean
40°
30°
50°
70°

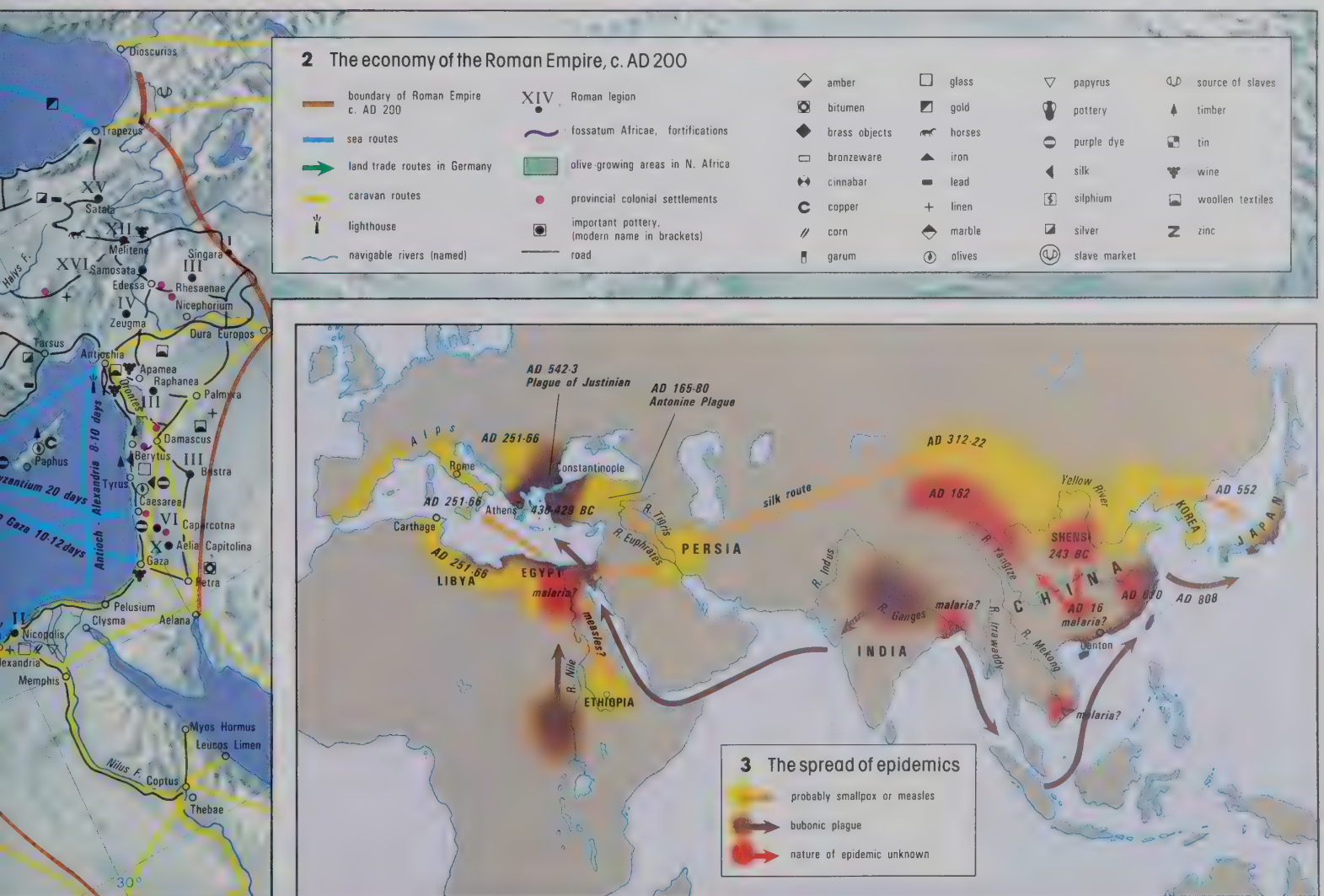
Trading links of the ancient world

Trade is as old as the beginning of settled urban life. Though ordinary needs were met by local agriculture and local manufacture, even the earliest cities had requirements that could not be satisfied locally. Jericho imported stone for tools from Anatolia (page 6); the Sumerians, who lacked timber, stone and minerals, developed trading links with Asia Minor and by sea with Dilmun on the Persian Gulf. But the formation of an intensive trading network spanning the whole Eurasian world only became possible after the rise of empires which could provide peace and security, build roads and maintain harbours. The Achaemenids made a beginning in sixth-century Persia, where Darius's Royal Road ran 1420 well-garrisoned miles (2300 km) from Sardis to Susa (page 20). But the decisive step forward was the rise, after 202 BC, of the Roman empire in the west and the Han empire in China. By the close of the first century BC Rome's conquests from the Atlantic to Syria formed a single vast trading area, gathered round a Mediterranean axis (map 2), and the expansion of Han China under Wu-ti (140–87 BC) created an economic bloc of similar dimensions in the east (page 28). Both possessed an elaborate network of roads and a highly organised system of transport and marketing, which encouraged regional specialisation and an unprecedented interchange of goods and manufactures. In the west the requirements of the legions in the frontier provinces of Gaul and the Balkans were a further stimulus. Spain became a large-scale producer and exporter of wine and olive oil; but the most important export of all was grain from Egypt, North Africa and the Pontine provinces, upon which Rome itself and many cities of Greece and Asia Minor were dependent.

Nor did trade halt at the frontier. China sent a mission to Ferghana, Bukhara and Bactria in 128 BC, and shortly afterwards the famous Silk Route came into operation (map 1). It started at Tunhwang on China's far western boundary, and skirted north or south of the Takla Makan Desert to Kashgar, before crossing the Pamirs and debouching into Bactria, Persia and the Mediterranean coastal belt. But the Silk Route, spectacular though it was, was less important in economic terms than the sea route to India and the Far East, traffic along which increased greatly after the discovery of the monsoon around 100 BC. Previously there had been coastal traffic, mainly in Arab or Indian hands. Now up to 120 Greek vessels a year, some with a carrying capacity of up to 500 tons, plied direct to the Indian ports of Barbaricum, Barygaza and Muziris, where they picked up eastern cargoes shipped by Indian merchants from Go Oc Eo in southern Cambodia, and carried them to Berenice and other Red Sea ports for transport on to Alexandria and thence to all parts of the Roman empire.

These far-flung trading links are impressive, but their economic importance should not be exaggerated. Both the Roman and the Han empires were self-sufficient in all essential commodities, and foreign trade was essentially a luxury trade, marginal to everyday needs. On the other hand, there is no doubt that foreign trade contributed directly to cultural interchange and to the spread of the great world religions (page 26). However, it also had other less happy consequences, particularly the spread of disease and pestilence (map 3). Earlier epidemics, like that which smote Athens in 430–29 BC, may have been transmitted by armies; but their incidence after about 100 BC leaves little doubt that, both in east and west, they were carried by caravans or merchant shipping from India or tropical Africa. Their precise character is not easily determined, though they seem to fall into two main groups, smallpox or measles, and bubonic plague; but there is no doubt about their devastating effects on vulnerable populations. 'One or two out of a hundred survived,' wrote the Chinese historian Ssu-ma Kuang of the epidemic of AD 317, and some later historians have attributed the failure both of China and of Rome to withstand the barbarian onslaughts of the fourth and fifth centuries to the sharp fall in manpower caused by imported pestilences.

MONGOLIA
SIBERIA
CHINA
TIBET
INDIA
ARABIA
PERSIA
BACTRIA
EMPIRE
KUSHAN
SINKIANG
DZUNGARIA
FERGHANA
MAKRAN
TAPROBANE
KINGDOM OF AXUM
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
Bay of Bengal
Arabian Sea
Indian Ocean
Persian Gulf
Red Sea
Loyang
Kumul (Hami)
Ansi
Urumchi
Turfan
Tunhwang
Lanchow
Kansu
Nan Shan
Silk route
Loulan
Lop Nor
Kuldja
Tien Shan
Kucha
Aksu
Issyk Kul
L. Balkhash
R. Ili
R. Tarim
Takla Makan Desert
Kunlun Range
Cherchen
Miran
Chengtu
Panyu
Cattigara
Tashkent
Kokand
Kashgar
Yarkand
Khotan
Lhasa
Pamir Mts.
Bukhara
Maracanda (Samarkand)
Silk Route
Zariaspa (Bactra)
Kapisa-Begram
Peshawar
Kabul
Taxila
Hindu Kush
Himalaya
Vadhapura
Go Oc Eu
Pataliputra
R. Ganges
R. Indus
R. Jaxartes
R. Oxus
R. Volga
R. Ural
R. Don
Caucasus Mts.
Trapezus (Trebizond)
Edessa
Zeugma
Tabriz
R. Tigris
Nisibis
Dura Europos
Palmyra
Ctesiphon
Ecbatana
Hecatompylos
Herat
Seleucia
Babylon
Susa
Charax
R. Euphrates
Kerman
Apologos
Ormuz
Gerrha
Dilmun
Omana
Pattala
Barbaricum
Barygaza (Broach)
Masulipatam
Takkola
Patane
Sopatma
Poduca
Muziris
Cana
Socotra
Julis
probable Chinese routes
1 Eurasian trade routes, c. AD 200
trade routes from the Mediterranean used by Greeks, Phoenicians and Arabs with Roman permission
Persian trade
trade routes under Chinese control including nomad areas only intermittently under Chinese control
Kushan trade
Indian and other routes


2 The economy of the Roman Empire, c. AD 200
boundary of Roman Empire c. AD 200
sea routes
land trade routes in Germany
caravan routes
lighthouse
navigable rivers (named)
XIV Roman legion
fossatum Africae, fortifications
olive-growing areas in N. Africa
provincial colonial settlements
important pottery, (modern name in brackets)
road
amber
bitumen
brass objects
bronzeware
cinnabar
copper
corn
garum
glass
gold
horses
iron
lead
linen
marble
olives
papyrus
pottery
purple dye
silk
silphium
silver
slave market
source of slaves
timber
tin
wine
woollen textiles
zinc
Dioscurias
Trapezus
Satala
Melitene
Samosata
Singara
Edessa
Rhesaenae
Nicephorium
Zeugma
Dura Europos
Tarsus
Antioch
Apamea
Raphanea
Palmyra
Damascus
Berytus
Bostra
Paphus
Tyrus
Caesarea
Capercotna
Aelia Capitolina
Gaza
Petra
Pelusium
Clysma
Aelana
Nicopolis
Alexandria
Memphis
Myos Hormus
Leucos Limen
Nilus F.
Coptus
Thebae
Euphrates
Hadrianopolis
Byzantium 20 days
Gaza 10-12 days
Antioch - Alexandria 8-10 days

AD 542-3 Plague of Justinian
AD 165-80 Antonine Plague
AD 251-66
AD 251-66
AD 251-66
430-429 BC
AD 312-22
AD 182
AD 552
AD 670
AD 808
AD 16
243 BC
Rome
Constantinople
Athens
Carthage
Alps
silk route
Yellow River
R. Tigris
R. Euphrates
R. Indus
R. Yangtze
R. Ganges
R. Irrawaddy
R. Mekong
R. Nile
PERSIA
INDIA
CHINA
EGYPT
LIBYA
ETHIOPIA
KOREA
JAPAN
SHENSI
Canton
malaria?
measles?
3 The spread of epidemics
probably smallpox or measles
bubonic plague
nature of epidemic unknown

The world religions
c.500BC-AD500

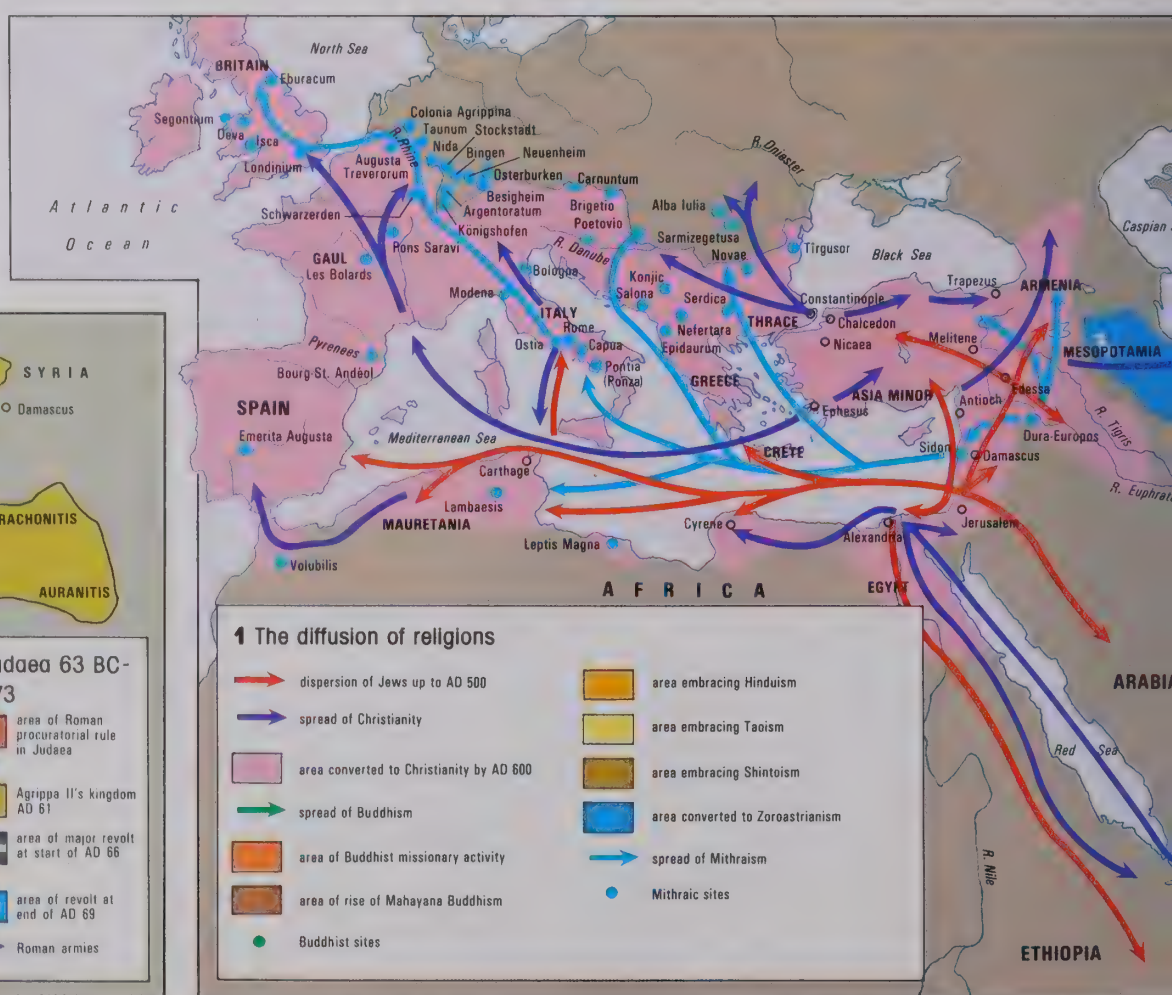
The period 550–500 BC saw the birth of great world religions in all the main centres of civilisation. Their appearance perhaps reflected a need in the rising empires of the old world for more universal creeds than the local tribal deities could provide, and their diffusion – particularly the spread of the great missionary religions, Buddhism and Christianity – was an important factor in linking together the different areas of civilisation (map 1). Their other major contribution – seen, for example, in the work of Anglo-Saxon missionaries in Germany or of Russian missionaries among the heathen tribes of the Urals (page 38) – was to carry civilisation to peoples outside the frontiers of the civilised world.

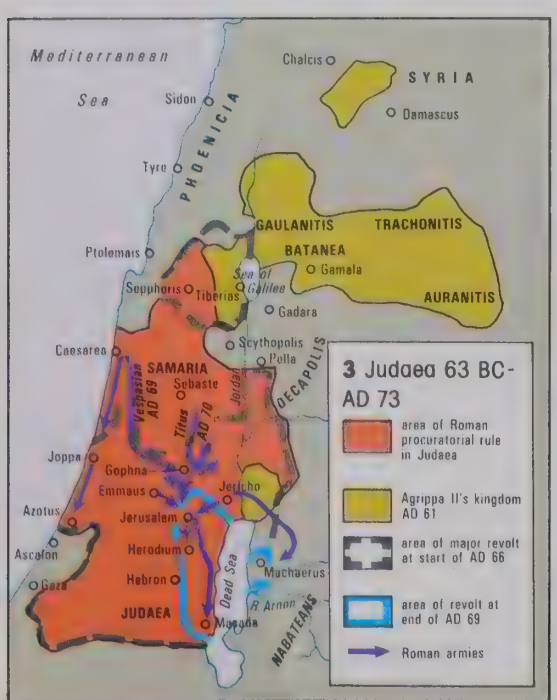
All the great religions shared, to one degree or another, a belief in a single spiritual reality. Not all were inspired by a missionary spirit. Hinduism, the oldest, was essentially the religion of the people of India, and Judaism, the religion of 'the chosen people of the Lord', was also exclusive. But Buddhism, originally a reformist movement within Hinduism, became perhaps the greatest of all missionary religions when it assumed its universalist, or Mahayana, form some 500 years after the death of its founder, Gautama (c.563–483 BC). Judaism also spread as a result of the persecution of the Jews by more formidable neighbours, beginning with the Babylonian exile (586 BC). After the Roman destruction of the temple in Jerusalem in AD 70 (map 3) the Jewish diaspora carried Judaism far and wide from its home in Palestine, until in time it became a worldwide religion. It also gave birth, directly or indirectly, to two of the world's great missionary religions, Christianity and Islam.

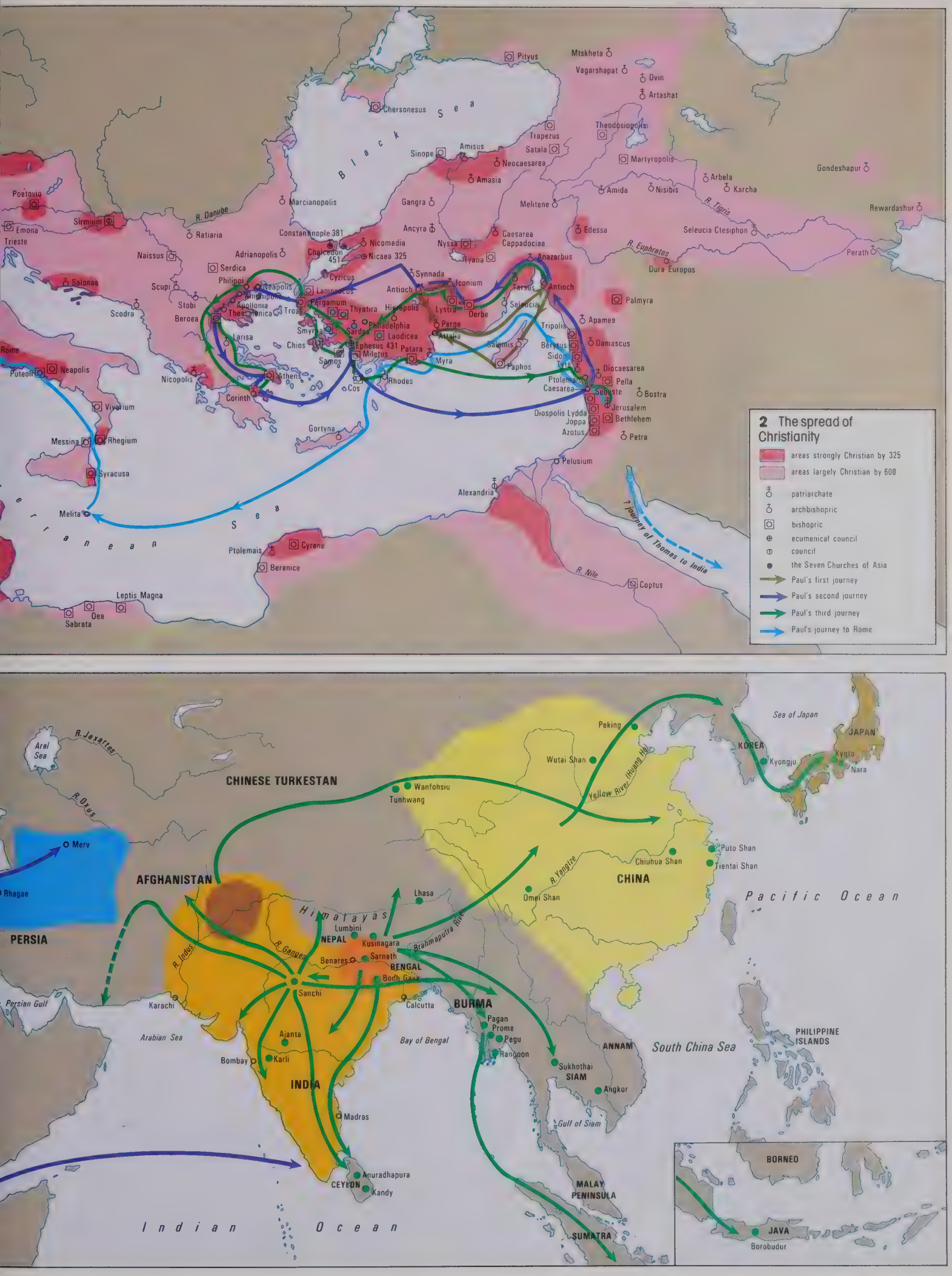
In the Far East the same period saw the rise of the ethical system of Kung Futzu or Confucius (551–479 BC) and the mystical religion of the Tao, or 'the Way', associated with the shadowy figure of Lao-tzu. Later Buddhism spread eastward along the Silk Route through central Asia and with Taoism and Confucianism became one of the 'three religions' of traditional China. Buddhism also reached Japan in the sixth century AD, where it effectively displaced spirit-worship and traditional Shinto until the revival of the latter in the nineteenth century.

The other great religion of the period was Zoroastrianism, which originated in Persia and is associated with another shadowy figure, Zarathustra. Zoroastrianism, which sees life as a battleground between the forces of good and the forces of evil, spread rapidly through the Roman world in the form of Mithraism, with shrines as far afield as northern Britain. It was one of the many oriental cults which permeated the Roman empire when, after the beginning of the Christian era, belief in the Greek pantheon and the household deities broke down. Until the end of the third century AD it was undecided which of the oriental mystery cults would prevail; but with the conversion of the emperor Constantine to Christianity and its recognition by the Edict of Milan (AD 313), still more after it became the official religion of the Roman empire under Theodosius (374–95), the die was cast. Heathen temples were uprooted; rival cults were condemned.

Christianity had begun as a Jewish splinter-movement; its founder, Jesus of Nazareth, saw himself as the Messiah, or Saviour, sent to liberate the Jews from the Roman yoke. But when, after Jesus's condemnation and crucifixion (AD 29), Jewish orthodoxy rejected his message, his disciples, notably Paul of Tarsus, turned instead to the conversion of the 'gentiles', or people outside the law. Paul's journeys (map 2) were a turning point. Thereafter Christianity spread rapidly, both in the Roman empire and also further east. Here the great Christian centres were Antioch and Edessa, the home of the Nestorian church which carried Christ's teaching to Persia and from there to China and India (page 38). This was the situation until the rise of Islam (page 40) changed the scene.






Pityus
Mtskheta
Vagarshapat
Dvin
Artashat
Chersonesus
Black Sea
Trapezus
Theodosiopolis
Sinope
Amisus
Satala
Neocaesarea
Martyropolis
Amasia
Gondeshapur
Arbela
Amida
Nisibis
Karcha
Poetovio
Marcianopolis
Gangra
Melitene
R. Tigris
Rewardashur
Sirmium
R. Danube
Emona
Ratiaria
Ancyra
Caesarea Cappadociae
Edessa
Seleucia Ctesiphon
Trieste
Constantinople 381
Nicomedia
Nyssa
R. Euphrates
Naissus
Adrianopolis
Chalcedon 451
Nicaea 325
Tyana
Anazarbus
Perath
Serdica
Cyzicus
Synnada
Dura Europos
Salonae
Philippi
Iconium
Tarsus
Antioch
Scupi
Neapolis
Lamponeia
Antioch
Palmyra
Stobi
Amphipolis
Pergamum
Lystra
Derbe
Seleucia
Scodra
Apollonia
Thyatira
Hierapolis
Beroea
Thessalonica
Troas
Tripolis
Apamea
Philadelphia
Perge
Smyrna
Sardes
Laodicea
Attalia
Damascus
Larisa
Chios
Ephesus 431
Miletus
Patara
Salamis
Berytus
Sidon
Rome
Samos
Myra
Paphos
Tyre
Puteoli
Neapolis
Nicopolis
Athens
Rhodes
Diocaesarea
Ptolemais
Pella
Caesarea
Sebaste
Bostra
Corinth
Cos
Jerusalem
Diospolis Lydda
Joppa
Bethlehem
Vivarium
Gortyna
Azotus
Petra
Messina
Rhegium
Pelusium
Syracusa
Alexandria
Mediterranean Sea
Melita
? journey of Thomas to India
Ptolemais
Cyrene
Berenice
R. Nile
Coptus
Leptis Magna
Oea
Sabrata
2 The spread of Christianity
areas strongly Christian by 325
areas largely Christian by 600
patriarchate
archbishopric
bishopric
ecumenical council
council
the Seven Churches of Asia
Paul's first journey
Paul's second journey
Paul's third journey
Paul's journey to Rome
Aral Sea
R. Jaxartes
R. Oxus
CHINESE TURKESTAN
Wanfohsiu
Tunhwang
Peking
Wutai Shan
Yellow River (Huang Ho)
Sea of Japan
JAPAN
KOREA
Kyongju
Kyoto
Nara
Merv
AFGHANISTAN
Chiuhua Shan
Puto Shan
Tientai Shan
CHINA
R. Yangtze
Omei Shan
Pacific Ocean
Rhagae
PERSIA
Lhasa
Himalayas
Lumbini
NEPAL
Kusinagara
Brahmaputra River
R. Indus
R. Ganges
Benares
Sarnath
BENGAL
Bodh Gaya
Sanchi
Persian Gulf
Karachi
Calcutta
BURMA
Pagan
Prome
Pegu
Rangoon
Arabian Sea
Ajanta
Bay of Bengal
ANNAM
South China Sea
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
Bombay
Karli
Sukhothai
SIAM
Angkor
INDIA
Madras
Gulf of Siam
BORNEO
Anuradhapura
CEYLON
Kandy
MALAY PENINSULA
JAVA
Borobudur
SUMATRA
Indian Ocean

India and China: the first empires

The fifth and sixth centuries BC were a period of consolidation in India and China. In India by the end of the fifth century the 16 political units in existence in 600 BC had been reduced to four. In China, by 400 BC, instead of the multiple feudal principalities of the Chou period (page 8) seven major states were contending for supremacy. In both countries iron tools increased both agricultural productivity and the resources of the rising states. In China the area of civilisation had expanded from the Yellow river to the Yangtze valley and beyond. In India the deforestation of the north shifted the centre of power from the Indus, the seat of the earliest civilisations (page 8), to the fertile plain of the Ganges. Here the kingdom of Magadha emerged as the nucleus of the first Indian empire.

Politically, nevertheless, it was a period of continuous strife, and the resulting social tensions were a major factor in the emergence of the great religious and ethical systems, Buddhism, Taoism, Confucianism and Jainism (page 26), which, in various ways, expressed a yearning for a more stable world order. In India the turning point came in 320 BC when Chandragupta Maurya seized the Magadhan throne, annexed the lands east of the Indus, occupied large parts of central India north of the Narmada river, and in 303 BC annexed the Seleucid province of Trans-Indus. Chandragupta's grandson, Asoka (273–236), conquered Kalinga on the Bay of Bengal, and the greater part of the subcontinent was brought under one rule. His edicts, inscribed on pillars and rocks, evidence Asoka's conversion to Buddhism (map 4).

In China the turning point came with the rise of the state of Ch'in (328–308), which finally dominated China in 221 BC (map 1). But the ruthless centralising policy of the first Ch'in emperor, Shih Huang-ti (221–206), provoked a reaction, and after his death his empire collapsed. It was revived, after a period of civil war, by the Han dynasty, which compromised between centralising policies and the feudal principalities. In India, also, the death of Asoka introduced a long period of decentralisation, punctuated by invasion from the north, which was not overcome until AD 320 when the Guptas, based again on Magadha, imposed a new imperial rule (map 5). This classical age of Indian civilisation survived beyond the collapse of the Gupta empire caused by the barbarian invasions of the fifth century (page 32).

The barbarian invasions were also a turning point in China. The Ch'in and the Han built and extended the Great Wall against the nomad Hsiungnu in the north. Under the emperor Wu-ti (140–87) the Han extended their power to central Asia (map 2). With its efficient administration, a large export trade, and an extensive network of roads and canals, Han China, with its capital at Changan was extremely prosperous (map 3). But control over south China was tenuous, while in the north feudal magnates still exercised great power, which grew with the threat of war. Crisis came in AD 9, and although Han rule was restored, disintegration set in after c.AD 160. When in 304 the Hsiungnu broke through the Great Wall, China remained divided until 589.

routes opened to trade by Former Han
administrative centres under Later Han
centre of Later Han protectorate, 73 127 AD
territory added under Later Han
new route opened by General Pan Ch'ao for Later Han
expeditions against Hsiungnu (Huns)
Chinese administration 109 106 BC
conquered and put under
4 India's first empires, 297 BC - AD 150
(approximate limits shown)
Chandragupta Maurya's Empire 297 BC
Bindusara's Empire 272 BC
Asoka's Empire 232 BC
rock and pillar edicts
Western Satraps AD 150
Kushan Empire AD 150 (eastern limit)
Satavahana Kingdom AD 150
3 Han China in AD 2
imperial capital
enfiefed principalities
commanderies
highways
canals
5 Gupta India
Empire of Chandragupta I
added by Samudragupta
temporarily tributary to Samudragupta
added by Chandragupta II
tributary tribes and states
under Gupta influence (c. AD 380-410)
Arabian Sea
Bay of Bengal
Indian Ocean
DRANGIANA
ARACHOSIA
CARMANIA
GEDROSIA
UDYANA
LAMPAKA
GANDHARA
KASMIRA
KURUKSHETRA
PANCHALA
NEPALA
BHOTA
Tibet
KOSALA
VIDEHA
ANGA
KAMARUPA
MAGADHA
PUNDRA VANGA
SAMATATA
KALINGA
conquered by Asoka 260 BC
SURASHTRA
AVANTI
VATSA
CHEDI
MAHA-KOSALA
VINDHYACHALA
MAHARASHTRA
SATAVAHANA KINGDOM
Deccan
KARNATA
CHOLA
CHERA (KERALA)
PANDYA
LANKA (SIMHALA)
Punjab
Sind
Gujerat
Hindu Kush
R. Indus
R. Ravi
R. Yamuna
R. Chambal
R. Ganges
R. Narmada
R. Godavari
R. Krishna
Mt. Kailas
Mt. Abu
Kapisi
Srinagara
Uhazni
Purushapura
Taxila
Harappa
Mulasthana
Jalandhara
Sakala
Sthanvisvara
Ahicchatra
Indraprastha
Kanauj
Sravasti
Kapilavastu
Mohenjo Daro
Sakhambhari
Ajayameru (Ajmer)
Patalene
Kanyakubja
Ayodhya (Saketa)
Mithila
Vaisali
Pataliputra
Champa
Prajjyotisha
Arbuda
Desapura (Mandasor)
Mahotsavanagara
Kausambi
Prayaga
Kasi (Benares)
Sarnath
Nalanda
Rajagriha
Gaya
Navadvipa
Tamralipti
Khajuraho
Vidisa (Bhilsal)
Sanchi
Ujjayini
Dhara
Dvaraka
Valabhi
Girinagara
Luthal
Bagho
Barygaza
Ramagiri
Sisupalgarh
Bhubaneswar
Konarak
Puri
Ellora
Ajanta
Nasik
Devagiri (Daulatabad)
Elephanta
Pratisthana
Kurli
Bhaja
Bedsa
Kalyani
Warangal
Pishtapura
Talikota
Manyakheta
Vengi
Amaravati
Vatapi
Aihole
Vijayanagar
Vaijayanti
Belur
Dorasamudra
Sravana Belgola
Kanchi
Mamallapuram
Arikamedu
Kaverippattinam
Srirangam
Uraiyur
Tiruchirappalli
Tanjuvur
Muziris
Madurai
Korkai
Anuradhapura
Polonnaruva
Sigiriya
TUNHWANG
KIUCHUAN
CHANGI
WUWEI
ANTING
CHINCHENG
LUNGHSI
TIENSHUI
WUTU
KUANG HAN
SHU
PA
HANCHUNG
SHUO FANG
WU YUAN
YEN MEN
PEITI
SHANG
Changan
NAN YANG
JUNAN
CHIU CHANG
NAN
CHANG MSIA
TANYANG
HUAI
KUAICHI
LIAO TUNG
HSUANTU
LIAOHSI
LOLANG
YUEHSUI
CHIENWEI
WULING
CHANGSHA
YUCHANG
MINYUEH
TSANGKO
ICHOU
LING LING
KUEI YANG
YULIN
TSANG WU
NANHAI
HOPU
CHIAOCHIH
CHIU CHEN
TAIWAN
KUSHAN & SAKAS
MADRAS KARTRIPURA
SASANIAN EMPIRE
YAUDHEYAS
ARJUNAYANAS
MALAVAS
GANAS
SAKAS
VAKATAKAS
KADAMBAS
GANGAS
PALLAVAS
PANDYA
LANKA (SIMHALA)
Mathura
Dasapura (Mandasor)
Padmavati
Ujjayini
Sanchi
Girinagara (Girnar)
Ajanta
Nandivardhana
Arikina (Erian)
NEPALA
KAMARUPA
DAVAKA
MAGADHA
Ayodhya
Vaisali
Pataliputra
PARIVRAJAKAS OF UCCHAKALPAS
PUNDRA VARDHANA
SAMATATA
SALANKAYANAS
Vengi
Bay of Bengal

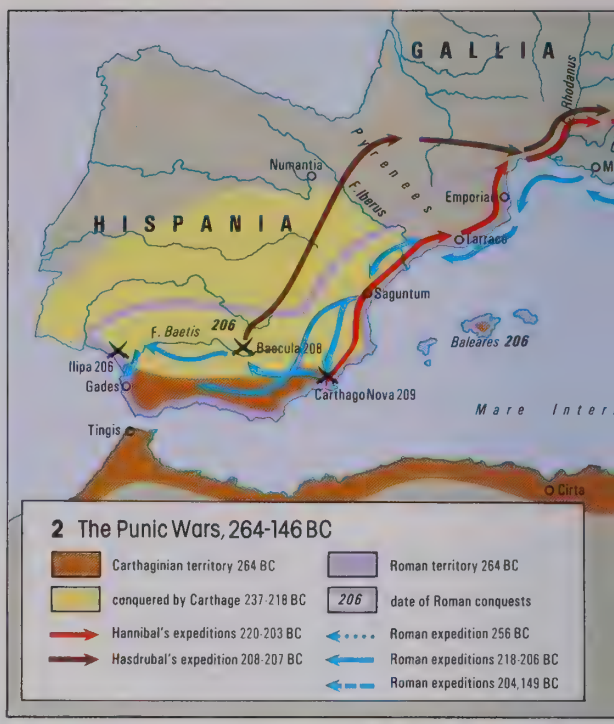
The Roman Empire
264BC-AD565

Originally a collection of village-settlements of Latin shepherds, Rome developed into a city under Etruscan domination during the sixth century BC. She gradually united Italy under her leadership into a confederation which she controlled by establishing Roman and Latin colonies at strategic points and a network of roads (map 1). She owed her predominance above all to her disciplined military power, combined with skill and generosity in making wide grants of her own citizenship or in forming alliances.

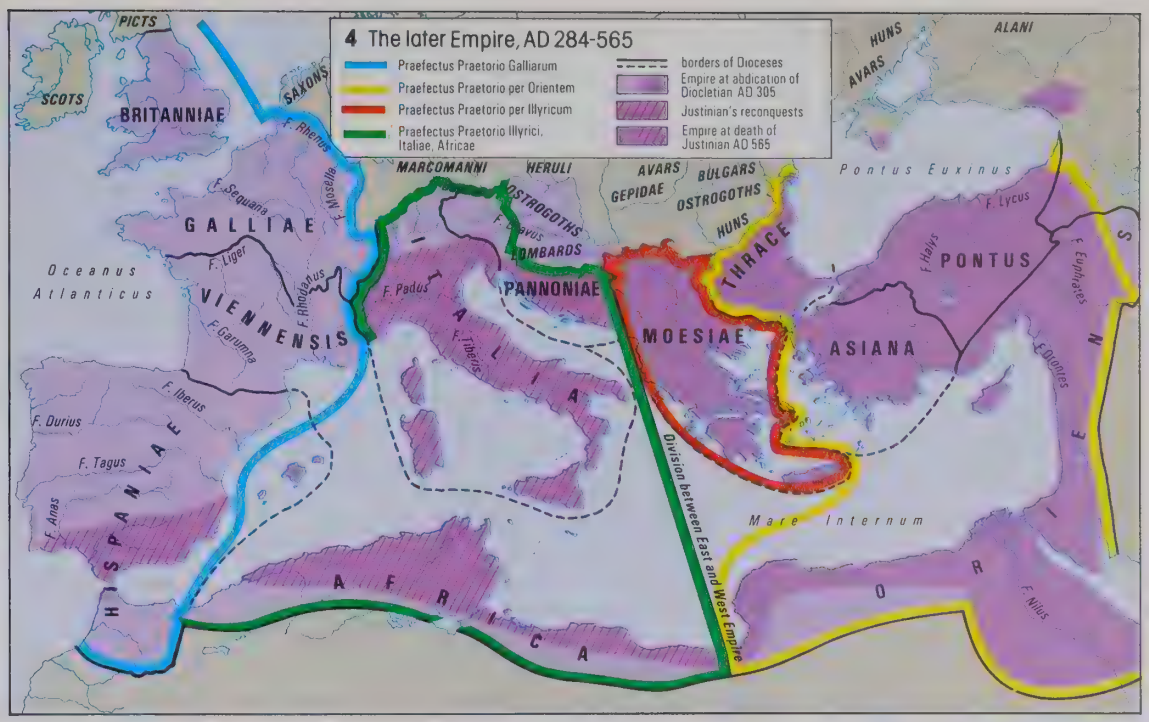
Although her interests had hitherto been primarily agricultural, Rome soon clashed with Carthage, the dominant commercial power in the western Mediterranean in a series of three Punic Wars (map 2). The first (264–241 BC) compelled Rome to build a navy and was fought mainly at sea; in the second (218–201), provoked by Carthaginian expansion in Spain and Roman seizure of Sardinia, Hannibal invaded Italy (218) but was ultimately defeated in North Africa (202); some fifty years later war again erupted and the Romans destroyed Carthage itself. Thus Rome acquired an overseas empire: Sicily (241), Corsica and Sardinia (238), Spain (206) and Africa (roughly modern Tunisia, 146). Meanwhile she had been in conflict with the Hellenistic kingdoms of Macedon, Syria and Egypt, annexing Macedon (in 146) and Asia (i.e. western Turkey) in 133.

The strains involved in administering an empire with the hastily adapted constitutional machinery of a mere city-state, combined with the increasing ambitions of political leaders who gained the personal loyalty of armies while governing provinces, gradually overstrained the Republican constitution. Though Rome overcame any discontent in Italy by granting to all its free inhabitants full Roman citizenship (90–89 BC), she could not prevent civil war between Julius Caesar, who added Gaul to the Empire, and Pompey whose conquests were in the east. Thirteen years more of civil war after Caesar's murder in 44 BC led to the triumph of Augustus and the transformation of the Republican system into a principate with the emperor as the effective ruler.

This empire (map 3) brought the Mediterranean world an unparalleled period of peace, stability and economic prosperity, the predominantly Latin culture of the west complementing the Hellenism of the east. But after some two-and-a-half centuries, barbarian pressure on the frontiers increased, economic difficulties multiplied, and one ruler could no longer hold the whole empire together. So in AD 284 Diocletian reorganised the administration and with Constantine's establishment of a new capital, Constantinople, at Byzantium (330) the empire, though theoretically governed by joint rulers, gradually broke into two halves. Barbarian attacks increased and in the fifth century the Western Empire fell to the invaders. In the east the Byzantine Empire survived for another thousand years, though the efforts of Justinian in the mid-sixth century to re-unite the two halves of the old empire failed (map 4).



VENETIA
F. Padus
Pisae
Metaurus 207
UMBRIA
ETRURIA
Trasimenus 217
Roma
Corsica
238
Mare Adriaticum
APULIA
Brundisium
Capua
Cannae 216
Farentum
Sardinia
38
Mare Tyrrhenum
BRUTTIUM
Croton
214
Aegates Ins. 241
Mylae 260
Rhegium
Sicilia
241
Lilybaeum
Syracusae
Utica
thago
sieged 149-146
Ecnomus 256
Hadrumetum
na 202
146


4 The later Empire, AD 284-565
Praefectus Praetorio Galliarum
Praefectus Praetorio per Orientem
Praefectus Praetorio per Illyricum
Praefectus Praetorio Illyrici, Italiae, Africae
borders of Dioceses
Empire at abdication of Diocletian AD 305
Justinian's reconquests
Empire at death of Justinian AD 565
PICTS
SCOTS
SAXONS
BRITANNIAE
F. Rhenus
F. Mosella
F. Sequana
GALLIAE
F. Liger
Oceanus Atlanticus
VIENNENSIS
F. Rhodanus
F. Garumna
F. Iberus
F. Durius
F. Tagus
F. Anas
HISPANIAE
MARCOMANNI
HERULI
AVARS
GEPIDAE
BULGARS
OSTROGOTHS
HUNS
ALANI
Pontus Euxinus
F. Lycus
F. Danuvius
OSTROGOTHS
LOMBARDS
F. Padus
PANNONIAE
F. Tibiscus
ILLYRICUM
THRACE
PONTUS
F. Halys
F. Euphrates
MOESIAE
ASIANA
Division between East and West Empire
Mare Internum
AFRICA
ORIENS
F. Nilus

3 The Roman Empire, AD 14-280
under administration of the Senate
imperial provinces in AD 14
senatorial provinces in AD 14
provinces added after AD 14 with date
later subdivisions of provinces
SARMATAE
F. Tanais
ALANI
Mare Caspium
ALBANIA
COLCHIS
BOSPORAN KINGDOM
Maeotis Palus
Olbia
Panticapaeum
Theodosia
Phasis
COSTOBOCI
Tyras
Chersonesus
Artaxata
F. Araxes
ARMENIA 114-117
Trapezus
Pontus Euxinus
PARTHIANS
POROLISSENSIS 124
Porolissum
SUPERIOR 118
Troesmis
Apulum
Vindobona
Carnuntum
Aquincum
Lauriacum
NORICUM
PANNONIA SUPERIOR 103
PANNONIA INFERIOR
IAZYGES
Sarmizegetusa
DACIA
DACIA 106
ROXOLANI
Durostorum
Tomi
Tropaeum Traiani
DACIA INFERIOR 118
Drobetae
INFERIOR
Odessus
Virunum
Poetovio
F. Dravus
Emona
Siscia
F. Savus
Sirmium
Viminacium
Singidunum
Oescus
Nicopolis
Mesembria
Apollonia
Aquileia
Tergeste
MOESIA
Naissus
Byzantium
Nicomedia
Ancyra
Sinope
BITHYNIA AND PONTUS
Nicopolis
Satala
Amasia
Zela
107
F. Halys
F. Euphrates
Randeia
Tigranocerta
ASSYRIA 114-117
Amida
Singara
Melitene
Nisibis
Hatra
F. Tigris
CAPPADOCIA
COMMAGENE 72
Samosata
Caesarea
Zeugma
Edessa
MESOPOTAMIA 115-117
Ctesiphon
Pola
ILLYRICUM
F. Drinus
SUPERIOR 85
Serdica
Philippopolis
THRACIA 46
F. Hebrus
Propontis
Nicaea
18
Nicephorium
Ravenna
Salonae
Narona
Scodra
F. Axius
Philippi
Stobi
GALATIA
Iconium
Tarsus
COELE 200
Antiochia
Dura-Europos
Babylon
Ancona
Mare Adriaticum
MACEDONIA
Alexandria Troas
ASIA
Stratonicea
Pergamum
Apamea
Laodicea
Pompeiopolis
Apamea
Palmyra
Perusia
F. Tiberis
Cortinium
Dyrrhachium
Thessalonica
Lemnos
Lesbos
Sardes
PAMPHYLIA
CILICIA
Emesa
ITALIA
Apollonia
Smyrna
Chios
Ephesus
Tripolis
Heliopolis
PHOENICIA 200
Roma
Capua
Brundisium
Beneventum
Misenum
Neapolis
Tarentum
EPIRUS 140
Nicopolis
Actium
Athenae
Patrae
Corinthus
LYCIA 43
Miletus
Rhodus
Salamis
CYPRUS
Berytus
Tyrus
Bostra
Mare Tyrrhenum
Croton
ACHAEA
Sparta
Caesarea
JUDAEA 44
Hierosolyma (Jerusalem)
Gaza
ARABIA PETRAEA 106
Messana
Rhegium
Panormus
Sicilia
Catana
Syracusae
Agrigentum
Creta
Cnossus
Gortyn
Pelusium
Petra
Mare Internum
Carthago
Melita
Alexandria
Arsinoë
NABATAEI
Zama
Hadrumetum
Thapsus
Apollonia
Memphis
Ptolemais
Cyrene
Arsinoë
Barca
Oxyrhynchus
F. Nilus
Berenice
Capsa
Oea
Leptis Magna
CYRENAICA
AEGYPTUS
Hermopolis
Sinus Arabicus
Sabrata
Ptolemais
Coptus
Thebae
AFRICA
Arae Philaenorum
GARAMANTES
PHAZANIA

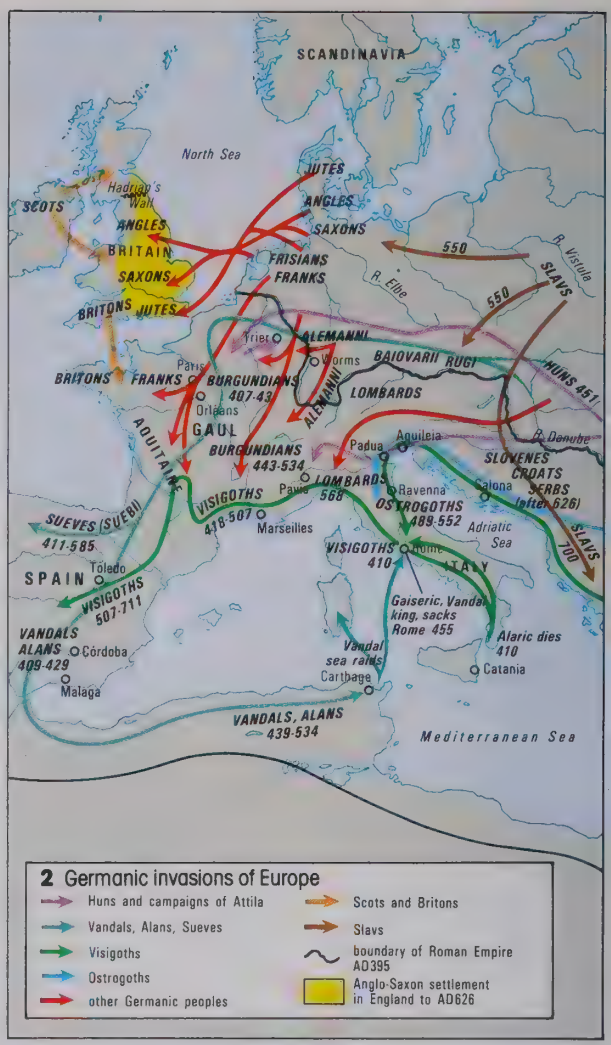
The barbarian invasions

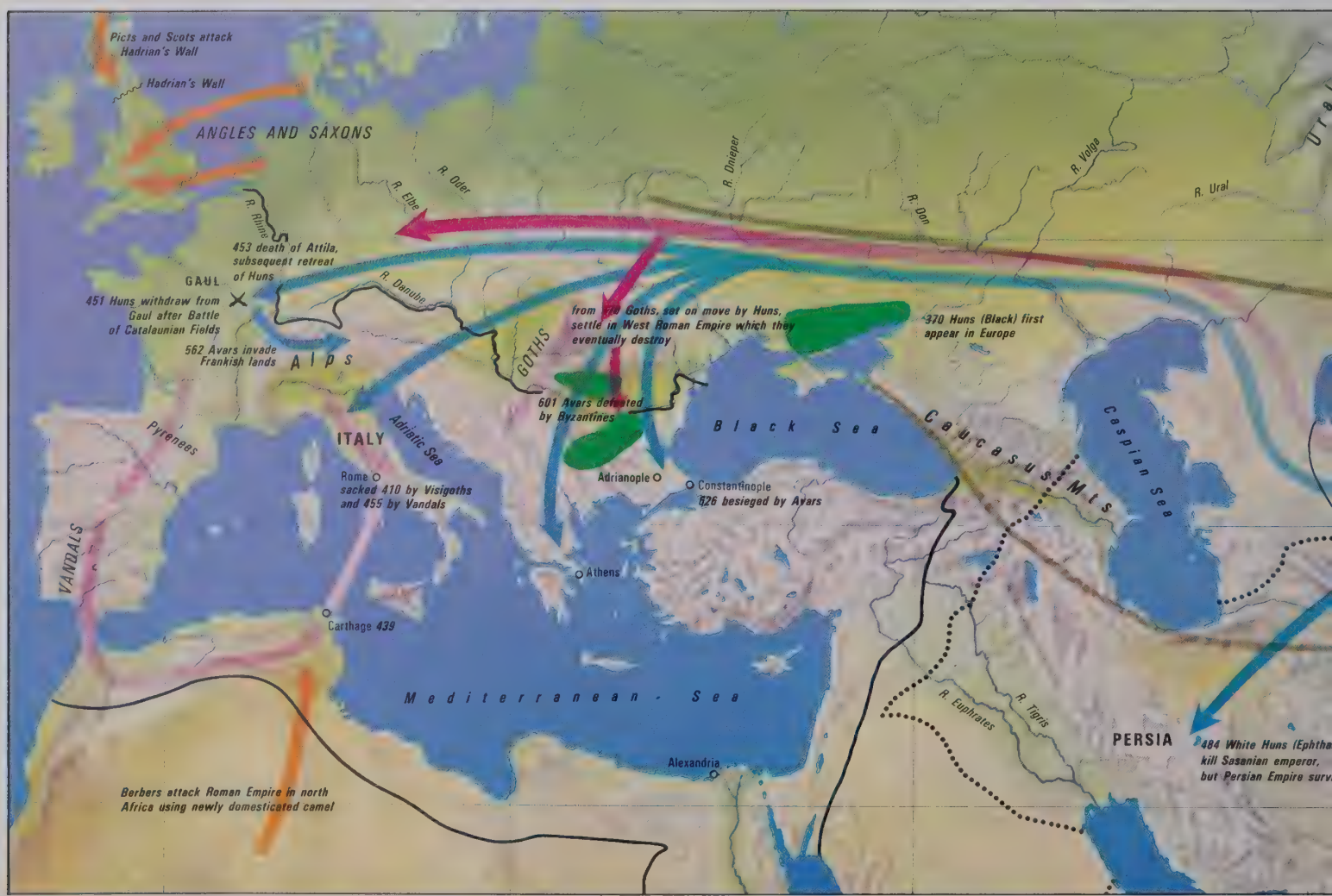
In the fourth and fifth centuries AD the irruption of nomadic peoples from central Asia threw the whole civilised world into disarray. The invading nomads were under no form of central control though their movements radiated from a common centre. They were mostly Mongoloid and their languages mostly of the Turkish family; they were pastoralists with mobile encampments of tents and they fought as mounted archers. All the established centres of civilisation were affected by them: China, the Gupta empire in India, Sasanian Persia and the Roman empire in the west (map 1). In 304 the Great Wall of China was breached by the Hsiung-nu, forbears of the Huns; in 367, in the far west, Picts and Scots broke through Hadrian's Wall into Britain. The setbacks were lasting. China remained disunited until 589, and western Europe (if we except the short-lived Carolingian revival) only began to recover from invasion around the middle of the eleventh century (page 36).

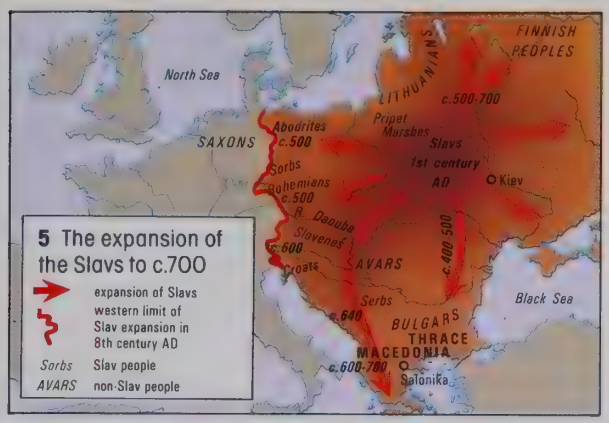
The appearance of the Huns in Europe c.370 immediately caused a great involuntary movement among the Germanic peoples who, centuries earlier, had moved down from Scandinavia and were settled on the northern confines of the Roman empire. The details, beginning with the Visigoths, who defeated the Roman emperor at Adrianople in 378, sacked Rome in 410 and passed over into Aquitaine in 418, can be followed on map 2. Behind the Visigoths followed other east and west Germanic peoples: Alans, Vandals, Sueves, Alemans, Franks, and finally the Ostrogoths who, having earlier been forced into subjection, liberated themselves after the defeat of the Huns in 451, and descended into Italy, where they were in control by 493. Only the Anglo-Saxon invasion of Britain, beginning c.440, followed a different course. Here scattered bands of warriors and settlers, moving by ship up the estuaries of the Humber, Thames and the Wash, met with stubborn resistance, and it was almost two centuries before the invaders, following their victories at Deorham (577) and Chester (616), established control (map 3). Here there was little, if any, continuity.

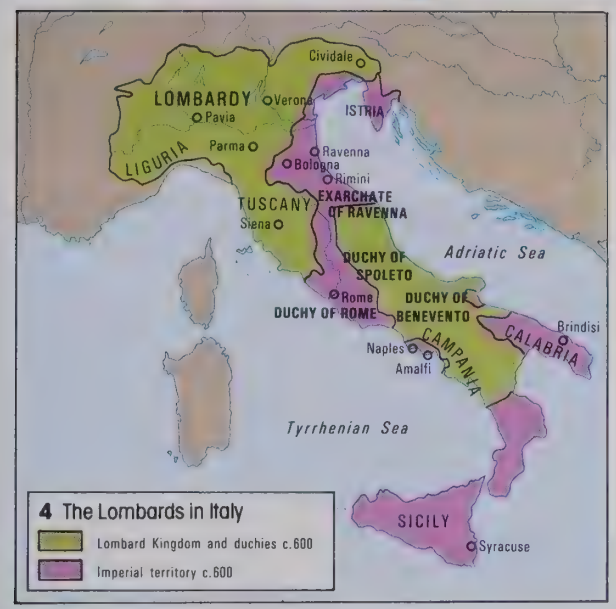
In continental Europe continuity was more evident. Political control passed from Roman officials to German kings; but, except for the Anglo-Saxons and Franks, who could draw manpower from their homeland, the invaders were too few in number to change decisively the character of Roman society. Hence the success of the counter-offensive which Justinian launched in 533 (page 30). But Justinian's wars, and the havoc they wrought, left the way open for another wave of invasion from Asia, this time the Avars, and it was their onslaught, beginning c.560, that drove the Lombards into Italy (568). But they were too few in number to occupy the whole peninsula, and Italy remained divided between the Lombards, the Byzantine emperor and the Papacy (map 4). When the Lombard ruler Aistulf advanced south, seeking to establish his authority over the Lombard dukes of Spoleto and Benevento, occupied Ravenna in 751 and drove out the Byzantine exarch, the Pope, fearing for his independence, called on the Franks for aid. Thus was sealed the momentous alliance of the Carolingians and the Papacy, which resulted in Charles the Great's invasion, conquest and annexation of the Lombard kingdom in 774.

The appearance of the Avars also unsettled the Slav peoples who had expanded from their home in the region of the Pripet Marshes following the Germanic migration westwards. Beginning c.600 Slav warbands descended into Greece and the Balkans, while the Bulgars took control of the western shore of the Black Sea (map 5). The arrival of the Slavs, cutting the landbridge between Byzantium and the west, was a cardinal fact in European history. The rise of the Bulgarian Empire and the gradual consolidation of Serbia and Croatia left a permanent imprint on the demography and historical geography of Europe.

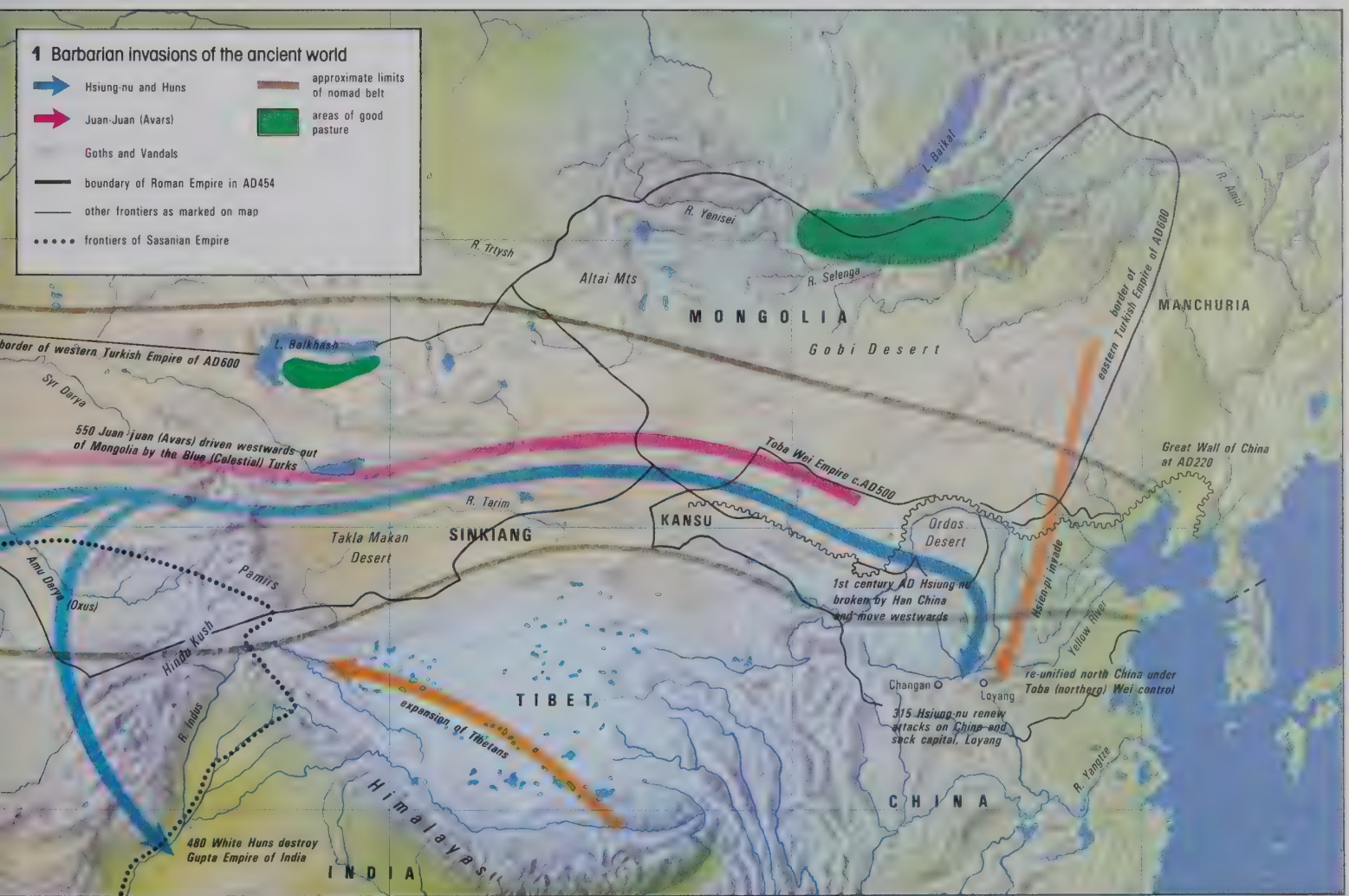





5 The expansion of the Slavs to c.700
expansion of Slavs
western limit of Slav expansion in 8th century AD
Sorbs Slav people
AVARS non-Slav people
North Sea
SAXONS
Abodrites c.500
Sorbs
Bohemians c.500
R. Danube
Slovenes c.600
Croats
AVARS
Pripet Marshes
LITHUANIANS
FINNISH PEOPLES
c.500-700
Slavs
1st century AD
Kiev
c.400-500
Serbs
c.640
BULGARS
THRACE
MACEDONIA
c.600-780
Salonika
Black Sea


4 The Lombards in Italy
Lombard Kingdom and duchies c.600
Imperial territory c.600
Cividale
LOMBARDY
Verona
Pavia
ISTRIA
LIGURIA
Parma
Ravenna
Bologna
Rimini
EXARCHATE OF RAVENNA
TUSCANY
Siena
Adriatic Sea
DUCHY OF SPOLETO
Rome
DUCHY OF ROME
DUCHY OF BENEVENTO
Brindisi
CALABRIA
Naples
Amalfi
CAMPANIA
Tyrrhenian Sea
SICILY
Syracuse

3 Anglo-Saxon invasions of Britain, c.440-650
lines of Anglo-Saxon advance
forest
fenland, swamp
Anglo-Saxon burial places c.450-650
British fortifications
LOTHIAN
STRATHCLYDE
BERNICIA
Bamburgh 547
REGED
Hexham 633
DEIRA
York
North Sea
R. Ribble
ELMEDSAETE (ELMET)
Humber
LINDSEY
GWYNEDD
Chester 616
PECSAETE
R. Dee
The Wash
MERCIANS
POWYS
WREOCENSAETE
MIDDLE ANGLES
EAST ANGLES
R. Severn
R. Wye
DYFED
BRYCHEINIOG
Chiltern Hills
EAST SAXONS
GWYNLLWG
R. Thames
Bedcanford 571
London
Crayford 457
Ebbsfleet 449
Wallingford 572
WEST SAXONS
KENT
HÆSTINGAS
Old Sarum 552
ANDREDESWEALD
SOUTH SAXONS
Cerdicesford 519
Andredescester 491
WIHT
Bindon 614
WEST WALES
GAUL


1 Barbarian invasions of the ancient world
Hsiung-nu and Huns
Juan-Juan (Avars)
Goths and Vandals
boundary of Roman Empire in AD454
other frontiers as marked on map
frontiers of Sasanian Empire
approximate limits of nomad belt
areas of good pasture
L. Baikal
R. Yenisei
R. Irtysh
Altai Mts
R. Selenga
MONGOLIA
Gobi Desert
MANCHURIA
border of eastern Turkish Empire of AD600
border of western Turkish Empire of AD600
L. Balkhash
Syr Darya
550 Juan-Juan (Avars) driven westwards out of Mongolia by the Blue (Celestial) Turks
Toba Wei Empire c.AD500
Great Wall of China at AD220
R. Tarim
Takla Makan Desert
SINKIANG
KANSU
Ordos Desert
Amu Darya (Oxus)
Pamirs
1st century AD Hsiung-nu broken by Han China and move westwards
Hsien-pi invade
Yellow River
Hindu Kush
Changan
Loyang
re-unified north China under Toba (northern) Wei control
315 Hsiung-nu renew attacks on China and sack capital, Loyang
TIBET
R. Indus
expansion of Tibetans
R. Yangtze
CHINA
Himalayas
480 White Huns destroy Gupta Empire of India
INDIA

Germanic kingdoms of Western Europe

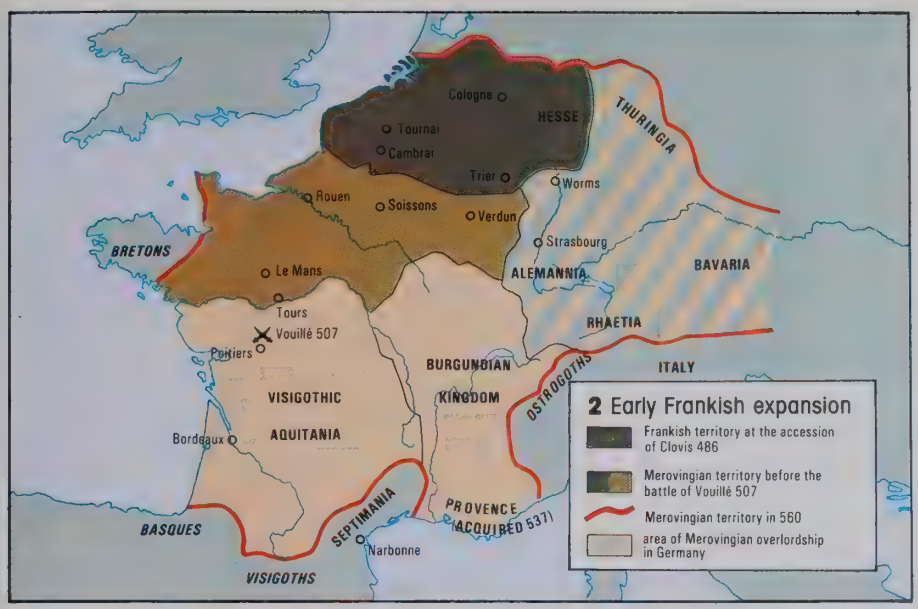
Within a century of the Germanic invasions there were settled kingdoms in western Europe, except in Britain where bands of invaders still met stubborn resistance. Among these (map 1) the Ostrogothic kingdom of Theodoric the Great (493–526) was outstanding. But the apparent stability proved short-lived. Monarchical institutions were still weak and religious differences divided the Arian rulers from their Catholic subjects. Justinian's attack on the Ostrogothic kingdom (page 30) destroyed the existing equilibrium in the west and opened the way for the advance of the Franks to the leading position (map 2).

The Franks also had appeared on the scene as scattered warbands, but Clovis (486–511) ruthlessly eliminated his rivals, made himself sole king, and reconciled the Gallo-Roman population by embracing the Catholic faith (497). He then turned against the neighbouring peoples, the Alemanni and Burgundians, defeated the Visigoths at Vouillé (507), near Poitiers, and forced them to withdraw to Spain and Septimania. But Theodoric's support for the other Germanic kingdoms checked further advance, and only after his death was a new phase of Frankish expansion possible. Deprived of Ostrogothic support, the Thuringians (531), Burgundians (532–4), and Alemanni (535) succumbed, and in 537 the Franks seized Provence.

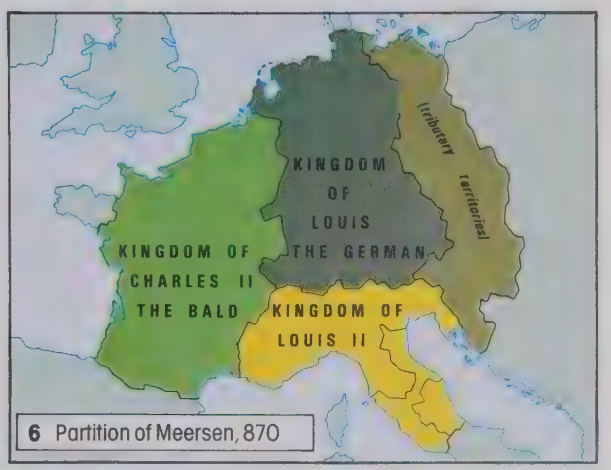
Once the initial wave of conquest was spent, however, decline set in. Division of the royal patrimony, dynastic quarrels and alienation of the royal estates to buy aristocratic and ecclesiastical support, seemed after the death of Dagobert I (629–39) to presage the break-up of the kingdom. In Britain, on the other hand, the seventh century saw the emergence and consolidation of the kingdoms known as the Heptarchy. It seems that the kingdoms of the south-east (Sussex, Kent, Essex, East Anglia) were prevented from expanding by geographical obstacles, and leadership passed first to Northumbria and then to Mercia. The progress of Northumbria was helped by its early conversion to Christianity, but it was resisted by pagan Mercia under Penda (632–54), sometimes in alliance with the Britons, and by the time of Offa (757–96) the pre-eminence of Mercia, now Christian, was unquestionable. It controlled the four eastern kingdoms (map 3), and even Wessex recognised Mercian overlordship.

In the Frankish lands the turning point came with the battle of Tertry (687), when the leaders of the Austrasian aristocracy established their preponderance. This was the beginning of the rise of the Carolingian dynasty. Ruling at first indirectly, but after 751 with the royal title, the Carolingians restored Frankish fortunes and inaugurated a great surge of territorial expansion (map 4). Charles Martel (714–41) won a famous victory over the Arabs at Poitiers (732). His son Pepin (751–68) expelled them from Aquitania (752). Charles the Great, or Charlemagne (768–814), conquered Lombardy (774) and established Frankish rule in Italy. But his greatest victories were in the east, against the Bavarians (788), the Avars (796), and the Saxons (finally subdued in 804). His coronation as emperor by Pope Leo III in 800 marked the apogee of Frankish success.

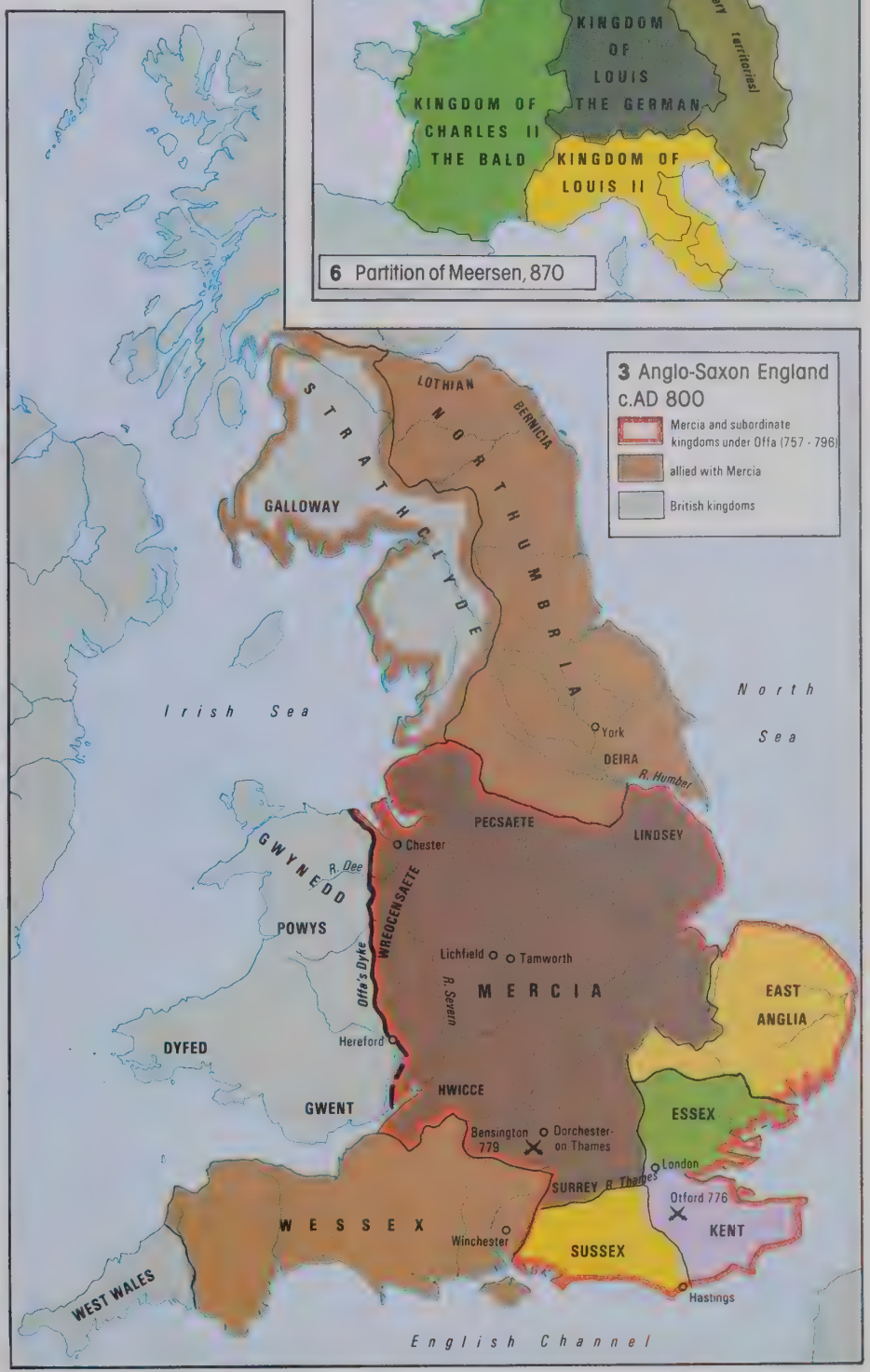
However, Charlemagne's last ten years were beset by problems, the frontier marches never safe from attack; and after his death the inherent institutional weaknesses quickly became apparent. Civil war led to a first partition in 843. But the famous treaty of Verdun (map 5) was only a first step, and at Meersen (870) the 'Middle Kingdom' was eliminated (map 6) and the familiar outlines of Europe began to take shape. In 888 the Carolingian empire collapsed but its legacy to European civilisation remained.


Cologne
HESSE
THURINGIA
Tournai
Cambrai
Trier
Worms
Rouen
Soissons
Verdun
Strasbourg
BRETONS
Le Mans
ALEMANNIA
BAVARIA
Tours
Vouillé 507
Poitiers
RHAETIA
BURGUNDIAN KINGDOM
ITALY
OSTROGOTHS
VISIGOTHIC AQUITANIA
Bordeaux
PROVENCE (ACQUIRED 537)
SEPTIMANIA
BASQUES
Narbonne
VISIGOTHS
2 Early Frankish expansion
Frankish territory at the accession of Clovis 486
Merovingian territory before the battle of Vouillé 507
Merovingian territory in 560
area of Merovingian overlordship in Germany

KINGDOM OF LOUIS THE GERMAN
(tributary territories)
KINGDOM OF CHARLES II THE BALD
KINGDOM OF LOTHAR I
5 Treaty of Verdun, 843


KINGDOM OF LOUIS THE GERMAN
(tributary territories)
KINGDOM OF CHARLES II THE BALD
KINGDOM OF LOUIS II
6 Partition of Meersen, 870

AXON
ARCH
08-810
WILZI
BODRITES
Magdeburg
R. Saale
R. Elbe
SORBS
THURINGIAN MARCH 806
R. Oder
BOHEMIA
egensburg
Altaich
Passau
R. Danube
OSTMARK 803
Kremsmünster
Salzburg
BAVARIA 788
CARINTHIA 788
PANNONIA 795-6
AVAR KINGDOM
(destroyed 796)
FRIULI 776
Aquileia
VENICE
under Frankish control 806-12
ISTRIA
conquered by Franks 788
Ravenna
DY
Spoleto
Adriatic Sea
Rome
Monte Cassino


3 Anglo-Saxon England c.AD 800
Mercia and subordinate kingdoms under Offa (757 - 796)
allied with Mercia
British kingdoms
LOTHIAN
BERNICIA
NORTHUMBRIA
STRATHCLYDE
GALLOWAY
Irish Sea
North Sea
York
DEIRA
R. Humber
PECSAETE
LINDSEY
Chester
GWYNEDD
R. Dee
POWYS
WREOCENSAETE
Offa's Dyke
Lichfield
Tamworth
MERCIA
R. Severn
EAST ANGLIA
Hereford
DYFED
HWICCE
GWENT
ESSEX
Bensington 779
Dorchester-on-Thames
London
SURREY
R. Thames
Otford 776
KENT
WESSEX
Winchester
SUSSEX
WEST WALES
Hastings
English Channel

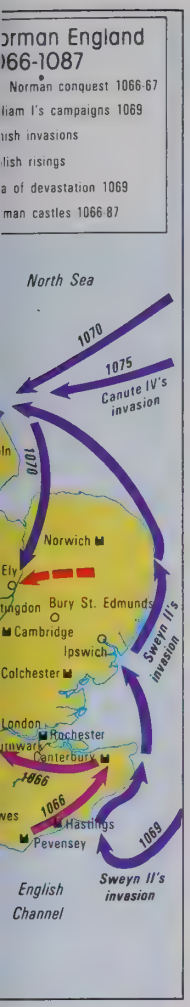
Invasion and recovery: Europe, 814-1149

The relative stability of western Europe under Charles the Great (Charlemagne) and of England under Offa of Mercia (page 34) was shattered in the ninth century by attacks by Saracens in the south, Magyars in the east, and Norwegians and Danes in the north and west (map 1). The Saracens pillaged Rome in 846, and after establishing a base at Fraxinetum in 890 raided deep into southern Gaul. Northern Italy and Germany were a prey to the Magyars who had moved into the Hungarian plain after Charlemagne's destruction of Avar power. The Vikings of Norway and Denmark also began as raiders; but in their case an initial phase of plunder was followed by settlement and colonisation, first in Orkney and Shetland, then in Ireland where Dublin was founded c.841, later (c.870) in Iceland and in England, where the Danish armies occupied the countryside round the Five Boroughs of the Midlands after 876. In France the West Frankish king conferred the lands at the mouth of the Seine – the later duchy of Normandy – on the Danish leader Rollo in 911.

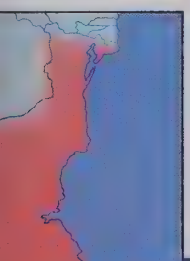
The invasions were accompanied by widespread devastation and depopulation. Inevitably recovery was slow. In Germany (page 54) Otto I's defeat of the Magyars at the river Lech (955) was a turning point. In England only determined resistance by Alfred the Great (871–99) held the Danes at bay. After 909 his successors went over to the offensive and by 939 Scandinavian England had been subjugated. But after the death of Edgar (959–75) a second wave of Danish invasion began.

In southern Europe, where Spain had been in Arab hands for over two centuries, the Mediterranean was by 950 virtually a 'Muslim lake'. But the collapse of Arab unity after 936 (page 40) facilitated a Christian revival. After the fall of Fraxinetum in 972 the fleets of Pisa and Genoa went over to the offensive, attacking the Muslim bases in North Africa, while Venice cleared the Adriatic (map 2). After the First Crusade (1096–99) and the great Venetian naval victory off Ascalon in 1123, the Italian cities dominated Mediterranean trade. The period of the First Crusade also saw the beginning of the Christian reconquest of Spain under Alfonso VI (1065–1109), king of León and Castile, who actually advanced as far as Toledo in 1084 (map 4). But the first wave of reconquest was halted by the great Islamic revival under the Almoravid and Almohad dynasties. The Christian advance only resumed in the thirteenth century after the decisive victory at Las Navas de Tolosa (1212) which led rapidly to the conquest of Córdoba (1236), Valencia (1238), Murcia (1243), Seville (1248) and Cádiz (1262).

The ninth and tenth century invasions also disrupted royal authority and created political fragmentation. In Gaul the Frankish rulers virtually capitulated to the Vikings, leaving defence to the local magnates. The result was a great upsurge of feudalism. Peasant freemen virtually disappeared and society was polarised between nobles and serfs. In Germany power devolved into the hands of dukes and margraves who defended the frontiers, and in Italy only the walled cities could withstand the Magyar onslaught. The kingdom of Wessex was the exception, unique in tenth century Europe beyond the borders of Muslim Spain and Byzantium. Here the monarchy took control, creating during the reconquest of the Danelaw a system of shires and hundreds administered by sheriffs who were officials, not feudatories. But this royal government could not withstand the renewal of Danish attacks during the reign of Aethelred II (978–1016). By the beginning of the eleventh century England seemed destined to pass into a Scandinavian orbit (page 52). The Norman Conquest (map 3) decisively halted this development. William the Conqueror quickly established control in the south; but in the north, where Danish and Scottish intervention underpinned resistance, he only made his authority secure by systematic devastation (1069). Danish reconquest was still a threat until 1085; but after 1066 England was permanently aligned with the Christian and feudal civilisation of western Europe. The period of invasions had irrevocably changed the structure of Western society.


orman England
066-1087
Norman conquest 1066-67
liam I's campaigns 1069
ish invasions
lish risings
a of devastation 1069
man castles 1066-87
North Sea
1070
1075
Canute IV's invasion
Norwich
Bury St. Edmunds
Cambridge
Ipswich
Colchester
London
Rochester
Canterbury
1066
Hastings
Pevensey
1069
Sweyn II's invasion
English Channel

1 Viking, Magyar and Saracen invasions
areas of Viking activity:
boundary of Christian west on the eve of invasions
Muslim attacks
areas most affected by Muslim raiders
route of great Magyar invasion of 937
main areas devastated by Magyars
Danish
Norwegian
Swedish
Viking routes
Viking bases
ICELAND
to Greenland 982
c.870
Faroe Is.
Atlantic Ocean
Shetland Is.
Orkney Is.
Hebrides
North Sea
NORWEGIANS
SCANDINAVIA
SWEDES
DANES
Baltic Sea
Staraya Ladoga
Novgorod
KIEVAN RUSSIA
Kiev
IRELAND
Derry
Tara
Dunbarton
Lindisfarne 793
Bangor
Clonmacnoise
Kells
Ardagh
Clonfert
Limerick
Clonard
Dublin 841
Cork
Waterford
York
WALES
Offa's Dyke
Derby
Lincoln
Nottingham
Leicester
Stamford
WESSEX
London
Winchester
Canterbury
Bremen
Hamburg 845
Dorestad 834
Ghent
Cologne
Aachen
Prum
Trier
Rouen 841
Arras
Cambrai
Laon
Rheims
Chartres
Paris
Orléans
Nantes 799
Angers
Tours
Noirmoutier
Poitiers
FRANCE (GAUL)
Lechfeld (955)
MAGYARS
Angoulême
Bordeaux
Périgueux
Santiago de Compostela 968
Valence
Pavia
Toulouse
Nîmes
Arles
Luna
Pisa
Fraxinetum 890-973
EMIRATE OF CORDOBA (756-912)
Corsica
Rome 936
Constantinople
BYZANTINE EMPIRE
Bari 841-871
Taranto 840-880
Otranto
Santa Severina c.840-886
Karmona (Córdoba)
Seville 844
Balearic Is.
Sardinia 1015
Sicily (occupied 827)
ARABS
Tunis
Kairouan
Mediterranean Sea
Black Sea



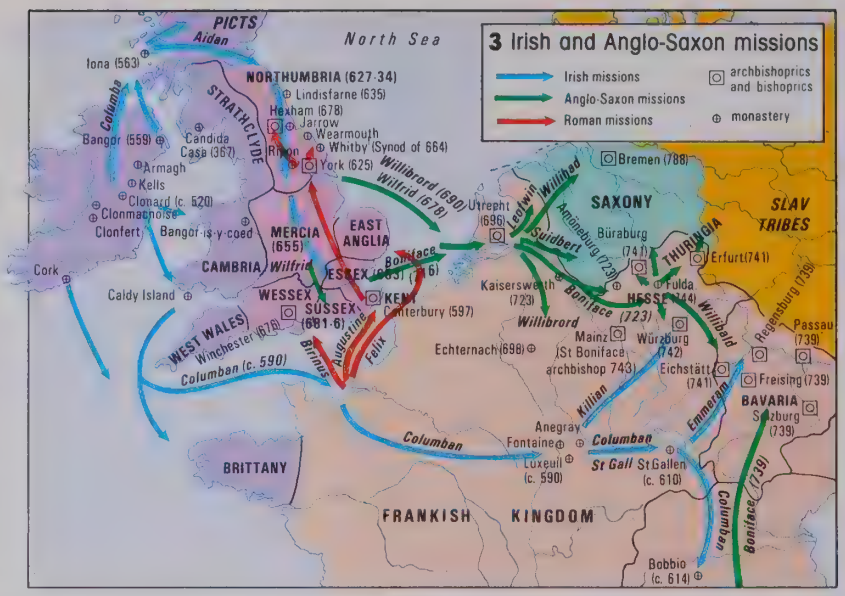
Constantinople
924
NE EMPIRE
969
SYRIA
Antioch
under Byzantine rule 969-1084
Cyprus (Byzantine 964)
964
Tripoli
1123
Venetian naval victory 1123
Ascalon
Alexandria
EGYPT
FATIMID CALIPHATE

Santander
Oviedo
Bilbao
Coruna
ASTURIAS
BASQUE PROVINCES (to Castile 1200)
FRANCE
Pyrenees
Santiago de Compostela
GALICIA
León
OLD CASTILE
NAVARRE
R. Ebro
Vigo
LEÓN
Burgos
ARAGON
CATALONIA
Saragossa
Barcelona
Oporto
R. Douro
Valladolid
Salamanca
Sierra de Guadarrama
Tarragona
PORTUGAL
NEW CASTILE
Peñiscola
Islands
Balearic
Majorca
Ibiza
R. Tagus
Toledo
Valencia
Lisbon
Badajoz
Ciudad Real
Alarcos 1195
Las Navas de Tolosa 1212
MURCIA
VALENCIA
ESTREMADURA
Murcia
Córdoba
R. Guadiana
ANDALUSIA
Seville
MUSLIM KINGDOM OF GRANADA (1275-1492)
Malaga
Almeria
Cádiz
4 The Christian reconquest of Spain, 1080-1492
Christian Spain in 1150:
Castile and León
Aragon
Portugal
Navarre
reconquest 1150-1212:
by Castile
by Aragon
by Portugal
reconquest 1212-1275:
by Castile
by Aragon
by Portugal
reconquest 1492:
by Castile and Aragon

Christianity and Judaism, c.600-1500

By the time of Pope Leo I (440–461) an organised Christian church existed with a hierarchy of bishops and a full-scale framework of patriarchates, provinces and dioceses. But the attempt to enforce orthodoxy, particularly at the Council of Chalcedon (451), caused serious internal conflict. The Monophysite or Coptic Christians of Egypt were alienated, the Nestorians driven into exile in Persia. Here they carried on great missionary work (map 1), only halted centuries later by the advance of Islam (page 40). In the west, however, where Christianity was the official religion of the Roman empire, the church suffered from the setbacks inflicted by the Germanic invasions of the western provinces (page 32), and subsequent rivalry between Rome and Constantinople resulted after 1054 in schism between Catholicism and Orthodoxy. A period of stagnation had set in, only ended by the Irish and later Anglo-Saxon missionaries (map 3), who converted the heathen tribes of Germany, reformed the Frankish church, and inaugurated a great missionary drive to Scandinavia and eastern Europe. In addition a counter-offensive against Islam was launched in a series of Crusades beginning in 1096. The general outline of the Christian thrust, north and east from the Rhine and Danube, can be followed on map 2.

The resurgence of Christianity, particularly marked after the pontificate of Leo IX (1048–54) was a disaster for the Jewish communities which had spread throughout Europe before and after the suppression of the Jewish revolts in Palestine by the Romans in AD 66 and 132. The Jews suffered no restrictions in the Roman empire and, with their widespread international connections, were welcomed as traders by the Carolingians and other early medieval kings. But the Crusades inaugurated a wave of intolerance, and the third and fourth Lateran Councils (1179, 1215) passed discriminatory legislation. The rise of a native merchant class also made Jews less indispensable to Christian rulers, and later they became the scapegoats for the economic setbacks of the fourteenth century (page 56). The result was the series of expulsions, beginning in England in 1290. In 1492 the Sephardic Jews were expelled from Spain, in 1497 from Portugal. The Ashkenazi in the German lands took refuge in Poland and Lithuania, where they formed tight communities in what later was called 'the Pale'. Only the eighteenth-century Enlightenment brought a beginning of reconciliation, but the Nazi experience was to show that it was far from complete.



4 The Jews in medieval Europe
cultural areas:
Ashkenazi
South Italian
Islamic
homeland of Spanish culture (Sephardi)
migrations
expulsions
ENGLAND
FRANCE
GERMANIC LANDS
POLAND
LITHUANIA
RUSSIA
BOHEMIA
HUNGARY
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Mediterranean Sea
TUNISIA
PERSIA
ARABIA
EGYPT
c.1100-1400
c.1150-1360
c.1350-1450
c.1450-1500
c.500-800
c.700-900
1290
1394
R. Rhine
R. Vistula
R. Dnieper
R. Danube
R. Euphrates
R. Tigris
Amsterdam
Cologne
Antwerp
Frankfurt
Marburg
Mainz
Nuremberg
Regensburg
Worms
Speyer
Augsburg
Munich
Prague
Vienna
Budapest
Breslau
Brest-Litovsk
Lublin
Cracow
Lemberg
Minsk
Kiev
Poznan
Oxford
London
Southampton
Paris
Troyes
Trier
Lyons
Montpellier
Narbonne
Perpignan
Arles
Marseilles
Barcelona
Venice
Ferrara
Florence
Rome
Naples
Taranto
Salonika
Adrianople
Constantinople
Smyrna
Aleppo
Tyre
Safed
Damascus
Baghdad
Alexandria
Jerusalem
Cairo
Tripoli
Tunis
Algiers
20°
40°

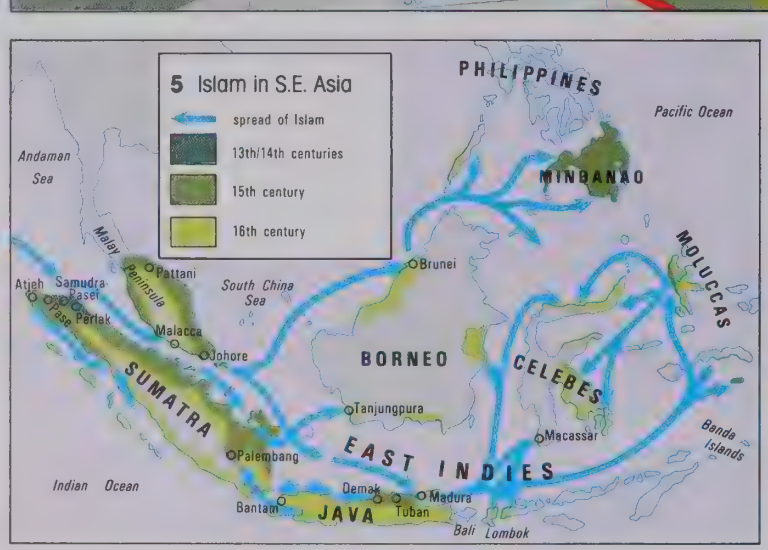
Armenians
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
Lake Balkhash
TRANSOXIANA
TURKESTAN
MONGOLIA
KOREA
CHINA
PERSIA
TIBET
INDIA
ONGUTS
UIGHURS
Yellow Sea
South China Sea
Arabian Sea
Bay of Bengal
Persian Gulf
Indian Ocean
Khanbalik (Peking)
Tatung Hira
Yangchow
Chinkiang
Hangchow
Sianfu
Ningsia
Kanchow
Tunhwang
Kumul
Almalyk
Cambaluc
Khara-Khoja
Kucha
Kashgar
Sining
Chengtu
Chuanchow
Canton
Nishapur
Merv
Bukhara
Samarkand
Herat
Balkh
Isfahan
Jund-i-Shapur
Seleucia-Ctesiphon
Baghdad (from 800)
Rai
Tabriz
Arbela
Bardaa
Halwan
Karkh
Beth Katraye
Dhofar
Socotra
Bombay
Cranganore
Kottayam
Quilon
CEYLON
Syrians of St Thomas
MALABAR
Christianity in Asia
Christian churches:
Nestorian churches
Coptic (Monophysite) missionary activity
Jacobite/Nestorian missions (the St Thomas church)
metropolitan see
bishopric
monastery
other churches
Distribution of non-Christian religions:
Islam
Buddhism
Hinduism
ONGUTS
pagan peoples

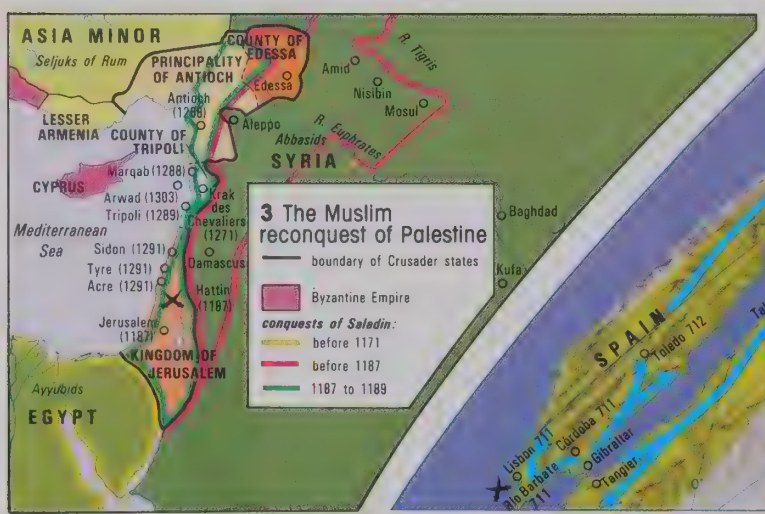
The Islamic world
632-1517

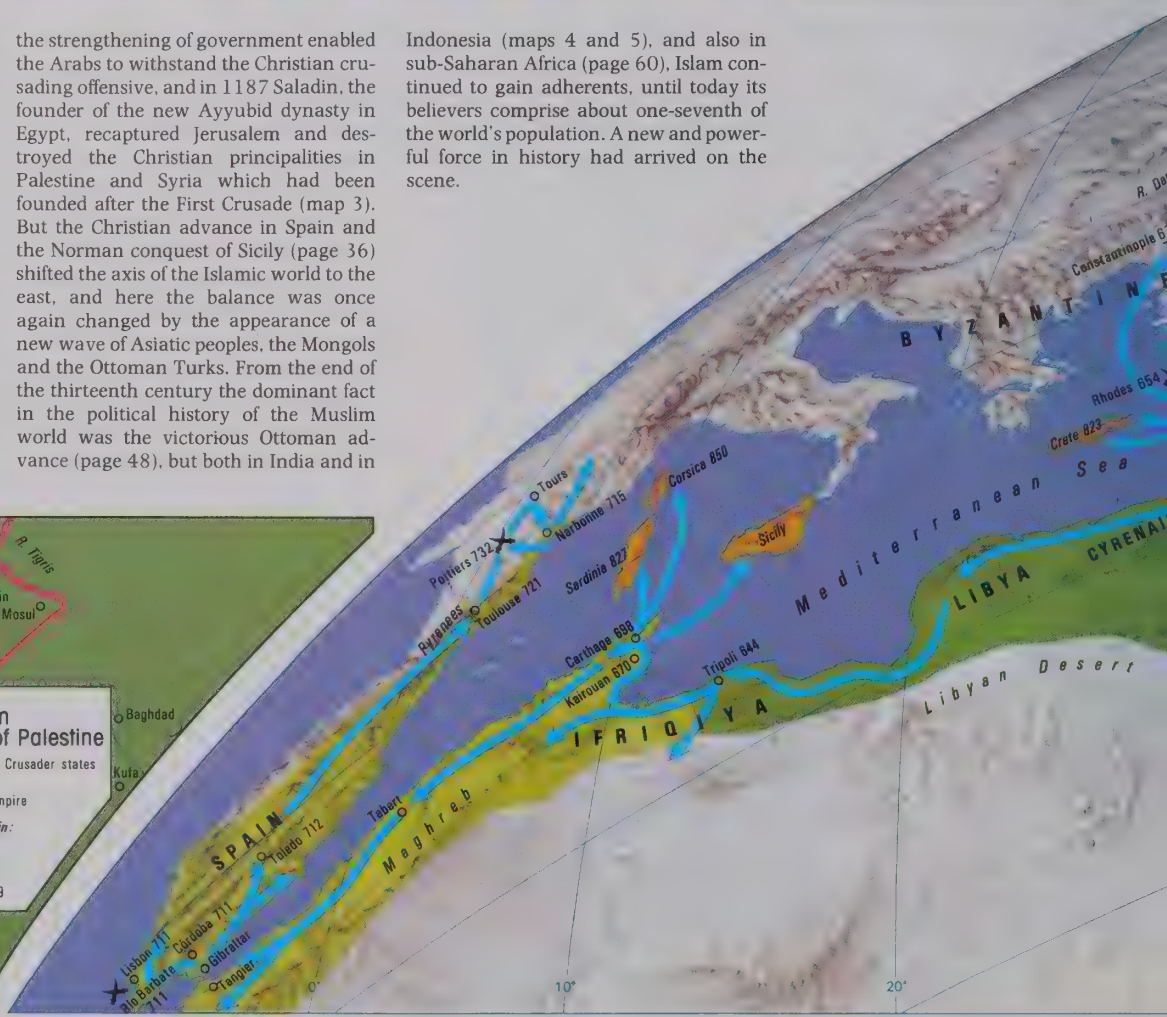
The most important event in world history between the fall of Rome and the European voyages of discovery in the fifteenth century was the rise and expansion of Islam. Founded by Mohammed (born in Mecca c.AD 570), the new religion quickly captured the Arab world and became a major political force as well as the heir and transmitter of Hellenic civilisation. The speed of its advance after the Prophet's death in 632 was astounding. Palestine was occupied and the Byzantine army defeated by 636, Persia overrun by 643, and within a century the Arabs had conquered North Africa and Spain (712) and reached the western confines of China, where they defeated the T'ang army at the Talas river in 751. The stages of the advance, which also carried them to India, can be followed on map 1. The only serious setback was the failure, in 673 and again in 717, to reduce Constantinople, which left the Islamic world exposed to Byzantine counter-attack.

By then internal developments were bringing the Islamic thrust to a halt. After 750 the Umayyad caliphs, who had led the advance, were displaced by the Abbasid dynasty, and the centre of gravity moved from Damascus, the seat of empire since 661, to Baghdad (founded 762). In the west the Arabs, halted by the Franks at Poitiers in 732, withdrew behind the Pyrenees in 759, and a new, less active phase began. The Abbasid period was a time of great prosperity, magnificent building and cultural and intellectual vigour, but by the beginning of the tenth century the unity of the empire was dissolving under the impact of religious and political strife. When in 945 the Abbasid caliph was deprived of political power and confined to purely religious functions, control devolved into the hands of local dynasties. Among these (map 2) were the Fatimids of Egypt, the Almoravids and Almohads of North Africa and Spain, and the Ghaznavids who played a great part in the expansion of Islam into India (map 4).

The process of disruption was arrested in the eleventh century by nomads from Asia, the Seljuk Turks, who defeated Byzantium at the battle of Manzikert (1071) and established a new type of state based on a partnership between Turkish 'men of the sword' and the Arab and Persian ruling class. Seljuk authority was limited essentially to the heartland of the caliphate (Baghdad, Syria, Iran), but the strengthening of government enabled the Arabs to withstand the Christian crusading offensive, and in 1187 Saladin, the founder of the new Ayyubid dynasty in Egypt, recaptured Jerusalem and destroyed the Christian principalities in Palestine and Syria which had been founded after the First Crusade (map 3). But the Christian advance in Spain and the Norman conquest of Sicily (page 36) shifted the axis of the Islamic world to the east, and here the balance was once again changed by the appearance of a new wave of Asiatic peoples, the Mongols and the Ottoman Turks. From the end of the thirteenth century the dominant fact in the political history of the Muslim world was the victorious Ottoman advance (page 48), but both in India and in Indonesia (maps 4 and 5), and also in sub-Saharan Africa (page 60), Islam continued to gain adherents, until today its believers comprise about one-seventh of the world's population. A new and powerful force in history had arrived on the scene.







Derbent
Tiflis
Caspian Sea
Manzikert 1071
Tabriz
AZERBAIJAN
Turks
Urgench
KHWARIZM
Karakhanids (992-1211)
R. Jaxartes (Syr Darya)
Kashgar
Bukhara
Samarkand
R. Oxus (Amu Darya)
TRANSOXIANA
Merv
Balkh
Nishapur
Hindu Kush
Kabul
Herat
Mosul
R. Tigris
Hamadan
Kermanshah
Seljuks (1038-1194)
KHURASAN
AFGHANISTAN
Ghazni
IRAN
Isfahan
Yazd
SEISTAN
Kandahar
Ghaznavids (977-1186)
Lahore
Multan
R. Euphrates
Basra
Shiraz
R. Indus
Persian Gulf
INDIA
Muscat
OMAN
ARABIA
Arabian Sea
YEMEN
Sana
Aden
PUNJAB
Himalayas
R. Brahmaputra
Lahore
Multan 712
711-713
SIND
R. Indus
Delhi 1295
c.1024
1304-11
R. Ganges
BENGAL
Broach
Surat
Bay of Bengal
R. Godavari
ORISSA
Arabian Sea
DECCAN
Laccadive Is. converted 13th century
Calicut
Maldive Is. converted 12th century
Quilon
Rameshwaram 1304
CEYLON
4 Islam in India
spread of Islam
Islamic area by 1200
Delhi Sultanate under the Khaljis 1306
Islamic area by 1400
Mughal Empire, c.1690
KHAZAR EMPIRE
R. Don
R. Dnieper
Caucasus Mts
Caspian Sea
Derbent
Tiflis
Ardabil
ARMENIA
AZERBAIJAN
GURGAN
Black Sea
Erzurum
Tabriz
Rai
Nishapur
Herat
KHURASAN
PERSIA
Aral Sea
TRANSOXIANA
R. Oxus
Talas 751
FERGHANA
Samarkand 710
Bukhara 710
Merv
Balkh 651
Hindu Kush
Kabul 664
PUNJAB
Suleiman Range
Multan 711
SEISTAN
R. Indus
SIND
MAKRAN
Nahavand 642
R. Tigris
Mosul 641
Jalula
Susa
Isfahan
Zagros Mts
Persepolis (Istakhr) 648
FARS
KIRMAN
MESOPOTAMIA
Edessa
R. Euphrates
Kerbela 680
Baghdad
Ctesiphon
Kufa
Basra 656
Qadisiya 636
Antioch
Tarsus
Taurus Mts
SYRIA
Damascus 635
Yarmuk 636
Fihl
Jerusalem 638
Ajnadain 634
Ramla
Cyprus 648
Persian Gulf
BAHRAIN
Suhar
OMAN
Arabian Sea
YAMAMA
Hijr
Heliopolis 640
Fustat (Cairo) 670
Tabuk
EGYPT 640
R. Nile
HEJAZ
Medina
Badr 624
Mecca
ARABIA
Red Sea
YEMEN
HADHRAMAUT
Dongola
NUBIANS
KINGDOM OF AXUM
30°
40°
50°
1 The expansion of Islam, 632-936
empire under Mohammed
growth under Abu Bakr (632-634)
growth under Omar (634-644)
growth under Othman (644-656) and Ali (656-661)
expansion of the Umayyad Caliphate (661-750)
expansion 750-850
routes of advance
battles

The Byzantine world, 610-1453

The history of the Roman empire was marked almost from the outset by a shift of focus to the east. The original cause was the lure of the wealth of the older oriental civilisations and the economic strength of the great commercial centres of Egypt and western Asia (page 24). Later, the loss of the western provinces to Germanic invaders (page 34) hastened the trend. Simultaneously the great Persian revival under the Sasanians forced Rome to concentrate its efforts on defence of its eastern frontier. After Justinian (page 30) the west was neglected, the Roman empire became an eastern, Greek-speaking dominion. The change is conventionally placed in the reign of Heraclius (610–641). From this time it is customary to speak of a Byzantine rather than a Roman empire.

Heraclius brought the long contest with Persia to a victorious close at Nineveh (628), but almost immediately was confronted by an even more redoubtable foe: Islam. The struggle with Islam (page 40) and with the Slavs, pressing against the European frontier in the Balkans (page 32), now became the dominant fact in Byzantine history. What is remarkable is Byzantine resilience. To meet the Arab threat, Asia Minor was reorganised into military districts, or 'themes', manned by a peasant militia (map 2). After two long Arab sieges of Constantinople had been repelled (674–8, 717–8), the new Macedonian dynasty (867–1056) launched a vigorous counter-offensive. By the death of Basil II (976–1025) the frontiers had been pushed back almost to their earlier limits. The Arabs were driven back to Jerusalem (976), and Bulgaria was finally reduced to a group of Christian provinces. Even later Manuel I (1143–80) still planned to recover the former Byzantine territories in Italy. But constant war imposed heavy financial strains, as well as profound and debilitating social change, and in spite of phases of aggressive counter-offensive and expansion, the frontiers steadily shrank (map 1).

After Basil I, the decisive fact was the appearance of a new foe, the Seljuk Turks (page 40). The crushing Seljuk victory at Manzikert (1071) induced Alexios I (1081–1118) to call on the west for help, thus initiating the sequence of events that led to the First Crusade. In retrospect, it was a disastrous move. The Franks were less concerned to aid Byzantium than to set up their own principalities in Palestine and Asia Minor. The Normans, by now in control of Sicily and Byzantine Italy, were greedy for Byzantine territory in the Morea (Peloponnese) and further east. The Italian cities, Venice to the fore, were striving to engross the oriental trade (page 36). The outcome, after a century of vicissitudes, was the Fourth Crusade (1202–4), the conquest and pillage of Constantinople, the partition of the Byzantine empire, and the establishment in its place of a Latin empire (map 3). But the Latin empire proved short-lived. The Greek-speaking population resented it, and a new dynasty, the Paleologues, restored the Greek empire in 1261.

It was, nevertheless, only a shadow of the former Byzantine empire; and when a new Turkish people, the Ottomans, established itself in Anatolia, and then, outflanking Constantinople, advanced into Byzantium's European territories (page 48), its fate was sealed (map 4). The rest of the story is an epilogue, ending with the fall of Constantinople in 1453. Nevertheless the story of Byzantium is not without greatness and lasting achievements. For centuries it was ahead of the west in government and in the arts of civilisation. It also passed on its culture and its religion to the Balkan peoples and to Russia. 'Two Romes have fallen,' a Russian monk wrote shortly after 1453, 'but the third is standing, and there shall be no fourth.' He was speaking of Moscow. Russia, gradually consolidated under its Varangian rulers and their Muscovite successors (page 44), now emerged as heir to the Byzantine inheritance. This was to be a fact of lasting importance in world history.

2 The "themes" and the Arab invasions

final organisation of themes

first four themes:

Opsician
Armeniac
Anatolic
theme of the Carabisiani

Arab invasion routes:

by land
by sea
invasion bases

4 The Muslim conquest of Anatolia

Byzantine eastern frontier c. 930
the frontier c.1070
controlled by Seljuk Turks c. 1080
Seljuk control early 13th century

1 The Byzantine Empire, 628-1143

imperial frontier c. 628
imperial frontier c. 1025
imperial frontier c. 1143

special areas:

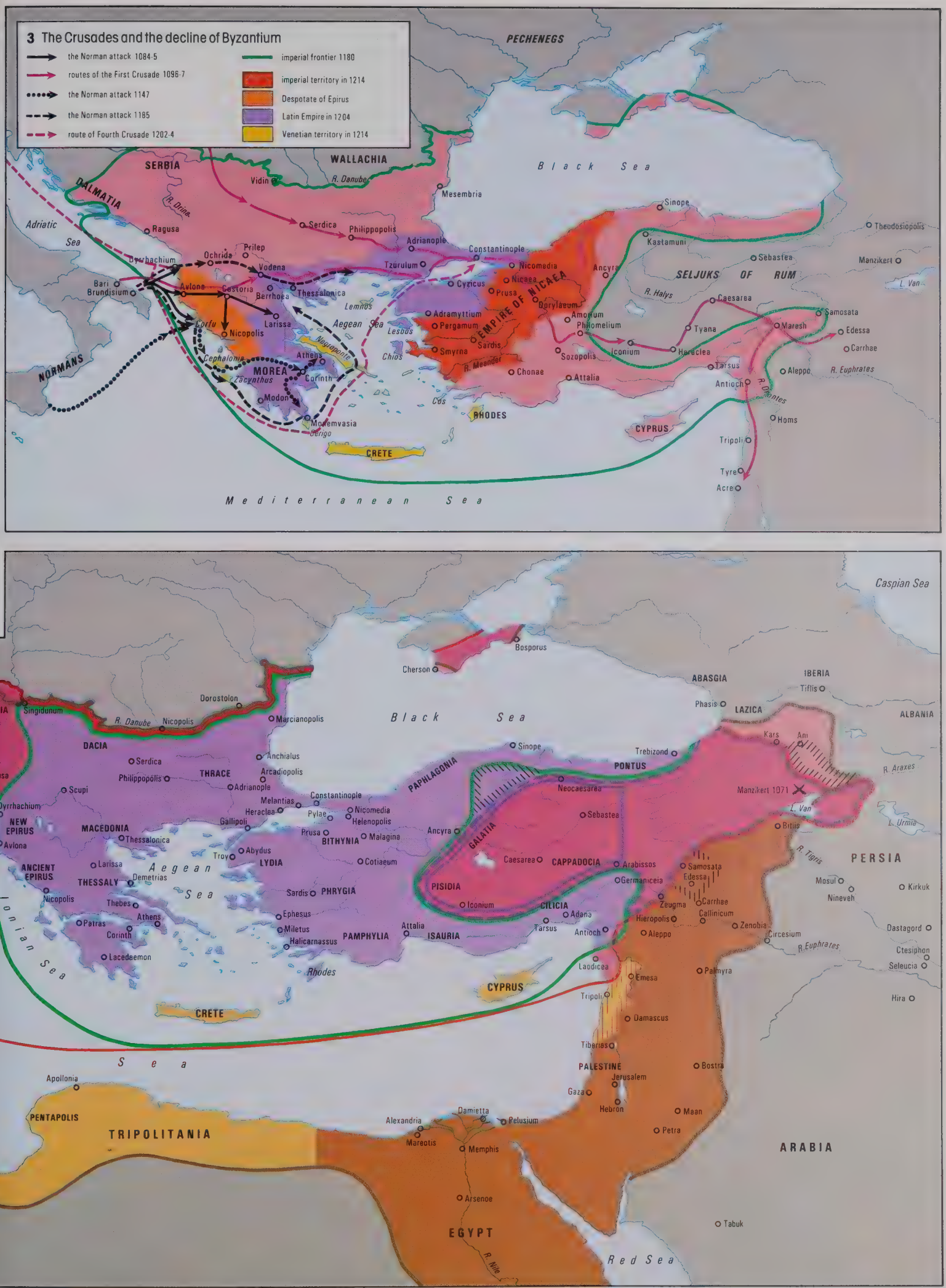
Exarchate of Ravenna
to Lombards 751
Exarchate of Africa
to Arabs from 670
to Franks from 754
to Arabs from 815
Catapanate of Italy
to Normans from 1071

general territorial losses:

to Arabs 636-641
to Arabs after 641
to Seljuk Turks from 1065
Sultanate of Rum from 1071

temporary reconquests:

Africa 685-710
Syria 975
Sicily 1038-1043
Ani 1054
Edessa 1052
Rum c. 1118


3 The Crusades and the decline of Byzantium
the Norman attack 1084-5
routes of the First Crusade 1096-7
the Norman attack 1147
the Norman attack 1185
route of Fourth Crusade 1202-4
imperial frontier 1180
imperial territory in 1214
Despotate of Epirus
Latin Empire in 1204
Venetian territory in 1214
PECHENEGS
WALLACHIA
SERBIA
DALMATIA
R. Drina
R. Danube
Vidin
Mesembria
Black Sea
Sinope
Theodosiopolis
Adriatic Sea
Ragusa
Serdica
Philippopolis
Adrianople
Constantinople
Kastamuni
Sebastea
Manzikert
Pritep
Ochrida
Durrhachium
Vodena
Tzurulum
Nicomedia
Ancyra
SELJUKS OF RUM
L. Van
Bari
Brundisium
Avlona
Castoria
Berrhoea
Thessalonica
Cyzicus
Nicaea
Prusa
R. Halys
Caesarea
Lemnos
Dorylaeum
EMPIRE OF NICAEA
Samosata
Larissa
Aegean Sea
Adramyttium
Amorium
Tyana
Maresh
Edessa
Corfu
Nicopolis
Lesbos
Pergamum
Philomelium
Carrhae
Negroponte
Sardis
Iconium
Heraclea
Smyrna
Sozopolis
Cephalonia
Chios
R. Meander
Tarsus
NORMANS
Athens
Chonae
Attalia
Aleppo
R. Euphrates
MOREA
Zacynthus
Corinth
Antioch
R. Orontes
Modon
Cos
RHODES
Homs
Monemvasia
Cerigo
CYPRUS
Tripoli
CRETE
Tyre
Acre
Mediterranean Sea
Caspian Sea
Bosporus
Cherson
ABASGIA
IBERIA
Tiflis
Dorostolon
Phasis
LAZICA
ALBANIA
Singidunum
R. Danube
Nicopolis
Marcianopolis
Black Sea
Kars
Ani
DACIA
Sinope
Trebizond
Serdica
Anchialus
PONTUS
R. Araxes
Philippopolis
THRACE
Arcadiopolis
PAPHLAGONIA
Scupi
Adrianople
Neocaesarea
Manzikert 1071
Constantinople
Dyrrhachium
Melantias
Heraclea
Pylae
Nicomedia
Sebastea
L. Van
NEW EPIRUS
Gallipoli
Helenopolis
Ancyra
GALATIA
Bitlis
MACEDONIA
Prusa
BITHYNIA
Malagina
Avlona
Thessalonica
L. Urmia
Troy
Abydus
LYDIA
Caesarea
CAPPADOCIA
Arabissos
Samosata
R. Tigris
PERSIA
Larissa
Cotiaeum
Germaniceia
Edessa
ANCIENT EPIRUS
Demetrias
Aegean Sea
PISIDIA
Mosul
Kirkuk
THESSALY
Sardis
PHRYGIA
Iconium
Zeugma
Carrhae
Nineveh
Nicopolis
Thebes
CILICIA
Callinicum
Ionian Sea
Ephesus
Adana
Hieropolis
Zenobia
Patras
Athens
Miletus
Tarsus
Antioch
Dastagord
Attalia
Aleppo
Corinth
Halicarnassus
PAMPHYLIA
ISAURIA
Circesium
R. Euphrates
Ctesiphon
Lacedaemon
Laodicea
Seleucia
Rhodes
Emesa
Palmyra
CYPRUS
Hira
Tripoli
CRETE
Damascus
Sea
Tiberias
Apollonia
PALESTINE
Bostra
Jerusalem
Gaza
Hebron
Maan
PENTAPOLIS
Alexandria
Damietta
Pelusium
Petra
TRIPOLITANIA
Mareotis
Memphis
ARABIA
Arsenoe
Tabuk
EGYPT
R. Nile
Red Sea

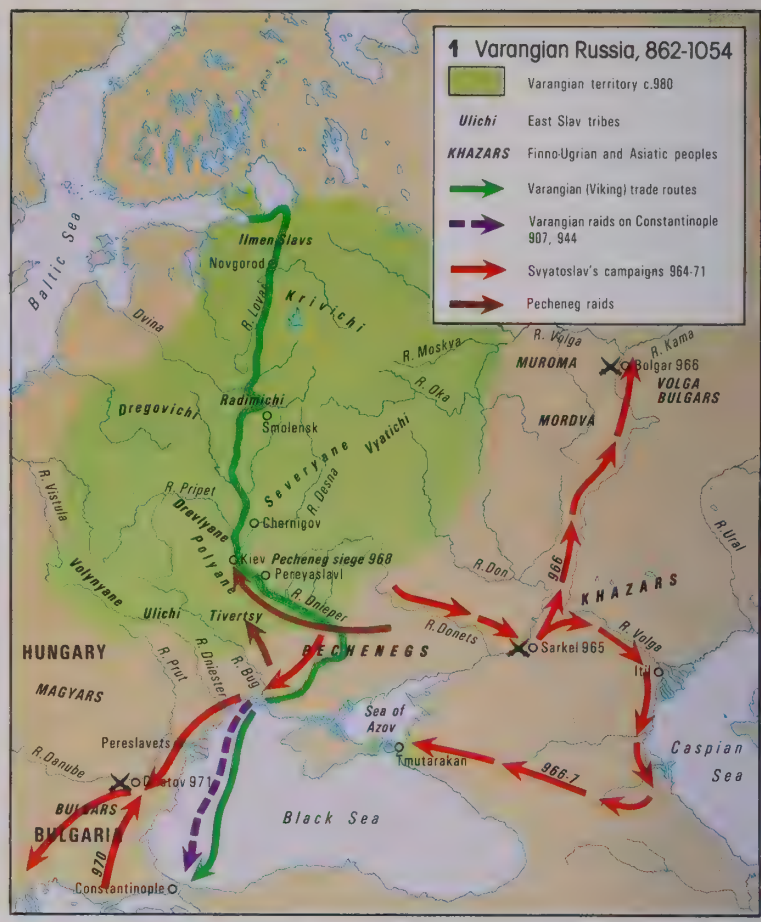
Early Russia
862-1245

Three factors shaped the early history of Russia: the movement eastward of Slav tribal settlers; the impact of the Vikings or Varangians, seafaring raiders and traders from Sweden who entered northern Russia c.850 (page 36) and imposed tribute on the neighbouring Slavs and Finns; the basic geography of the region, particularly the division between the forests of central and northern Russia and the treeless steppes of the south through which successive waves of invaders from Asia poured into Europe. Fierce Pechenegs controlled the fertile steppelands. To avoid them Slav colonists moved into central Russia, where they settled in the river basins, clearing the forests and living by agriculture, hunting, trapping and by the fur trade.

At first the Slavs resisted the Varangians. But in 862 they called in 'Rurik the Viking' to restore order and protect them from Pecheneg raiders. Rurik occupied Novgorod, but the Varangians immediately pushed south to Smolensk and then along the Dnieper to Kiev (882). They thus controlled the trade route from the Baltic to the Black Sea. At the same time they imposed their rule over the Slav tribes on both sides of the river (map 1). It was nevertheless only a loose tributary overlordship, and it was not until the time of Vladimir I (980–1015) that the tribal regions were welded together into a single state.

The reign of Vladimir's son, Yaroslav I (1019–54) was the high point of Kievan Russia. Converted to Christianity under Vladimir and in close contact with Constantinople, Kiev ranked high among European cities. But the new state had grown too quickly and after 1054 its decline was rapid. Dynastic conflict was incessant, and the administration ineffective. At the same time the destruction of the Khazar empire by Svyatoslav (965) opened the way for a new wave of Asiatic nomads, the Polovtsy, who broke through the defences erected by Vladimir I and sacked Kiev in 1093. The result was a great exodus of peasants northwards to the region between the Oka and the Volga, where many new towns were founded including Vladimir, Suzdal, Rostov, Moscow and Tver. Novgorod-Seversk, and in the west, Galich and Vladimir-Volynsk broke away from Kiev. After 1125 the axis of Russian life shifted north and the state broke up into warring principalities (map 2), among which Vladimir-Suzdal was outstanding.

The final blow to the old order was the Mongol invasions, which fell upon the Volga region before turning south against Kiev which was sacked in 1240 (map 3), while Novgorod was exposed simultaneously to German and Swedish attack. Mongol control was only indirect, but its results were far-reaching. Kievan Russia, already debilitated, disappeared for ever, and the way was open for the rise of Moscow.



2 Kievan Russia, 1054-1242
towns and places of significance 1054
towns and places of significance 1054-1200
MARI tribes
movement of steppe nomads in 11th century
defensive works built against nomads
boundaries of Russian principalities c. 1200
Prince Igor Svyatoslavich's campaign against Polovtsy 1185
waterway trade routes
tundra
coniferous and deciduous forest
steppe and desert
mountain vegetation
Arctic Circle
White Sea
SAMOYED
R. Pechora
Ural Mts
R. Mezen
Pinega
Northern Dvina
R. Onega
KARELIA
NOVGOROD
EMPIRE
CHUD
YUGRA
PERM
L. Onega
R. Vychegda
L. Ladoga
Baltic Sea
Gulf of Finland
R. Neva 1240
Ladoga
Beloozero
R. Sukhona
VYATKA TERRITORY
ESTS
L. Peipus 1242
Yuriev
Novgorod
R. Volkhov
L. Ilmen
Gulf of Riga
KURS
LIVONIAN ORDER
Riga
Pskov
Izborsk
Galich
MARI
Yaroslavl
Kostroma
Rostov
Kukeynoys
Tsesis
Western Dvina
R. Lovat
Torzhok
Tver
VLADIMIR-SUZDAL
Volok-Lamsky
Pereyaslavl
Suzdal
ZHMUD
TEUTONIC ORDER
Toropets
Dmitrov
Nizhniy Novgorod
R. Kama
Polotsk
LITVA
SMOLENSK
Moscow
R. Moskva
R. Klyazma
Vladimir
Murom
Vitebsk
POLOTSK
Orshal
Smolensk
Kolomna
Ryazan
Bolgar
Bilyar
VOLGA BULGARS
Suvar
Gorodno
Minsk
Kopys
R. Oka
Koselsk
Nesvizh
Klechesk
CHERNIGOV
MUROM-RYAZAN
MORDVA
Berestye
Drogochin
Bryansk
Karachev
Novosil
R. Desna
VLADIMIR-VOLYNSK
TUROV-PINSK
Pinsk
Turov
Rechitsa
Listem
NOVGOROD-SEVERSK
Kholm
Vladimir
Chertven
Belz
Vruchy
Lyubech
Chernigov
Novgorod-Severskiy
Korosten
Ryisk
Kursk
R. Ural
KIEV
Gorodets
Kiev 1093
Peremyshl
Terebovl
PEREYASLAVL
Pereyaslavl
Donets
R. Don
Galich
GALICH
Rodnya
Kolomyya
Kamenets
Poltava
POLOVTSY (in 1054)
TORKI
PECHENEGS
POLOVTSY
in 1200
R. Volga
R. Prut
R. Donets
Peresechen
Southern Bug
R. Dniester
R. Dnieper
Sarkel
SAKSINY
HUNGARIAN KINGDOM
Belgorod
Oleshe
Carpathian Mts
Sea of Azov
Peresiavets
Itil
R. Danube
Dristov
Tmutarakan
Khersones
Sugdeya
R. Kuban
R. Kuma
Caspian Sea
BULGARIA
Black Sea
KASOGI
YASI
R. Terek

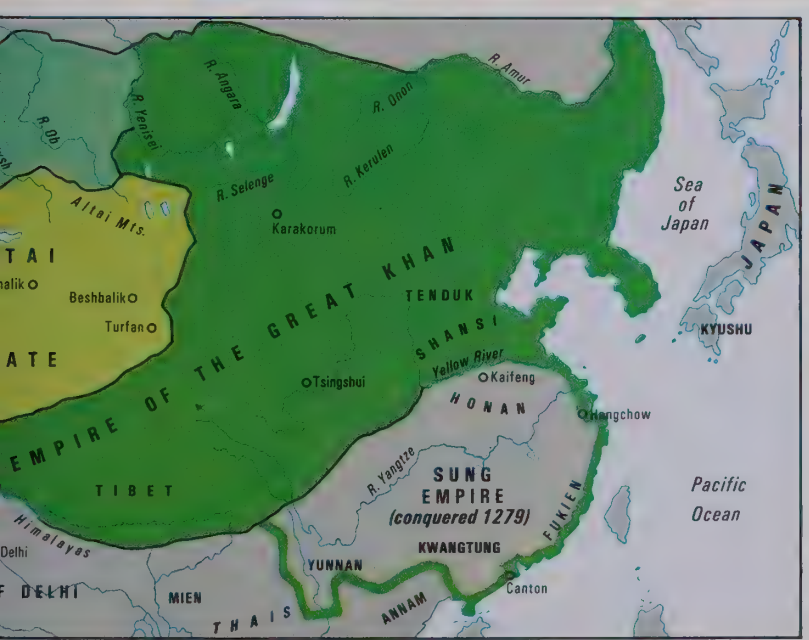
The Mongol Empire, 1206-1696

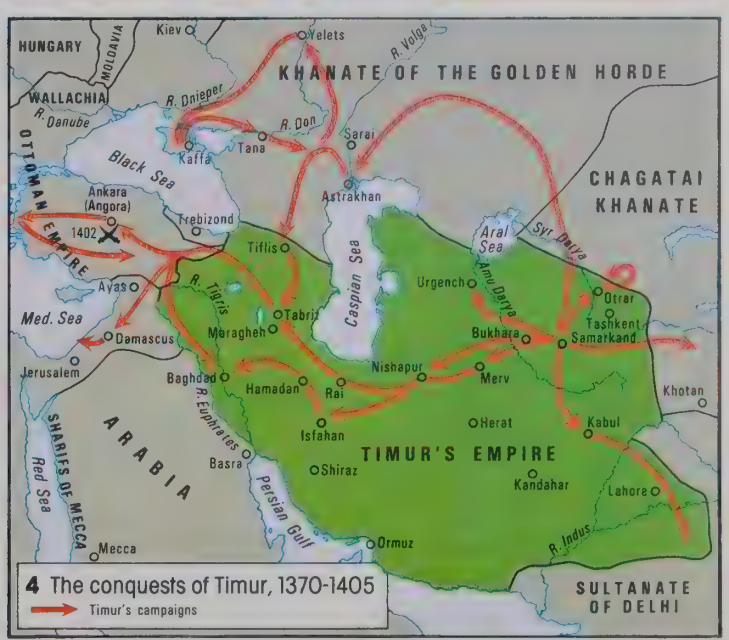
The Mongols, a primitive nomadic people from the depths of Asia, had tremendous influence on the course of world history. Few in number, but augmented by Turcoman auxiliaries, they threw themselves against the old centres of civilisation in east and west (map 1). After overrunning the Ch'in empire in north China between 1211 and 1234, they defeated the Sung army and ruled over the whole of China from 1280 to 1367 (page 50). They even launched seaborne expeditions against Java and Japan, though neither was successful. In the west their first victim was the Muslim empire of Khwarizm (1220), after which they turned against the Abbasid caliphate, sacking Baghdad in 1258. But the decisive Mameluke victory at Ain Jalut (1260) halted their advance in this direction. Meanwhile, they had thrown themselves against Christian Europe, overrunning the northern Russian principalities in 1237–8 and sacking Kiev in 1240 (page 44), before advancing into Hungary and Poland and destroying a German-Polish army at Legnica in 1241 (map 2).

The architect of these amazing victories was a certain Temujin, known to history as Genghis Khan, son of a Mongol chief, who united the different Mongol tribes under his leadership (1206) and subdued other neighbouring, mainly Turcoman tribes, before turning against China in 1211. Genghis died in 1227, but his wars of conquest were continued by his sons and grandsons, among whom Ogedei, elected Great Khan in 1229, and Möngke, who succeeded in 1251, were outstanding. But the vast empire lacked coherence and stability, and the Mongols failed to develop appropriate institutions. Genghis himself divided his empire among his four sons, like earlier Frankish rulers in the west (page 34), and with similar results. Already on the death of Ogedei (1241), Genghis' grandson Batu, commander-in-chief in the west, withdrew his army from Poland to the base on the lower Volga, in order to take part in the choice of a successor. It never returned and western Europe was spared, though Russia remained a Mongol tributary for over two centuries. Finally, on the death of Möngke (1259), the brittle unity dissolved. Kublai (d. 1294) was elected Great Khan, but instead of a general overlordship, his authority was confined to the east, and the western khanates (Chagatai, Il-Khan and the Golden Horde) went their own way (map 3). By the sixteenth century only the eastern khanate survived: in Persia the Ilkhanids were displaced by a local Turcoman dynasty in 1353, and later the successors of the Golden Horde, which had broken up into a number of smaller khanates at the time of Tamerlane the Great, were mopped up by a resurgent Russia.

It was, paradoxically, Timur, or Tamerlane (1336–1405), traditionally the last great Mongol conqueror (though he was in fact a Turcoman from Transoxiana), whose victorious career initiated the decline. Timur's vast empire (map 4) fell apart rapidly after his death while leading an expedition against China; but in the course of his conquests he destroyed the Chagatai khanate, which ceased to exist in 1405, and dislocated the Golden Horde. Henceforward the Mongols were under attack from all sides, increasingly at a disadvantage as the introduction of firearms weighed the balance on their adversaries' side. In the west Russia absorbed the former territories of the Golden Horde (page 84). In the east, the Mongols threw back a major Chinese assault in 1449 (page 50) and resumed their offensive under Altan Khan (1507–82); but in the end Mongolia itself was brought under Chinese dominion in 1696 by the new Ch'ing dynasty (page 106). Nevertheless the Mongol impact had lasting results. All the older civilisations were affected; faced by the Mongol challenge, their history took a new course.

Ocean
R. Ob
Tungus
R. Angara
Kirghiz
BURYATS
OYROTS
Lake Baikal
MERKITS
MONGOLS
NAIMANS
KERAITS
TARTARS
R. Amur
HITAI EMPIRE
1219
Kuldja
Beshbalik
Karakorum
Tashkent
R. Tarim
MONGOLIA
Khojend
Uighurs
1204-06 unification of the Mongol tribes
Kashgar
1207
Tanguts
1211
Shangtu
Khotan
Hsihsia
CHIN EMPIRE
(until 1237)
Khanbalik
(Peking)
Kabul
KASHMIR
LADAKH
Himalayas
Peshawar
1215
Kaifeng
KOREA
Lahore
TIBET
CHINA
1273-74
and 1281
1281
JAPAN
Lhasa
R. Indus
1297-1327
Delhi
R. Ganges
Patna
ASSAM
SUNG EMPIRE
(conquered 1279)
SULTANATE OF DELHI
1296
GUJERAT
BENGAL
1277,
1287
1257-58
BURMA
YADAVA
Pagan
Canton
TAIWAN
ORISSA
Deogiri
Hanoi
1285-88
ANNAM
Bay
of
Bengal
PEGU
Hainan
South
China
Sea
HINDU
STATES
Warangal
1283
EMPIRE
OF
THE
KHMER
CHAMPA
Goa
Sukhothai
DVARA
VATI
expedition to
Java 1292-93
Angkor
80


R. Amur
R. Angara
R. Onon
R. Ob
R. Yenisei
R. Kerulen
R. Selenge
Altai Mts.
Karakorum
Sea
of
Japan
JAPAN
Beshbalik
Turfan
TENDUK
SHANSI
KYUSHU
Yellow River
Tsingshui
Kaifeng
HONAN
Hangchow
SUNG
EMPIRE
(conquered 1279)
R. Yangtze
Pacific
Ocean
TIBET
FUKIEN
Himalayas
Delhi
KWANGTUNG
YUNNAN
MIEN
Canton
THAIS
ANNAM

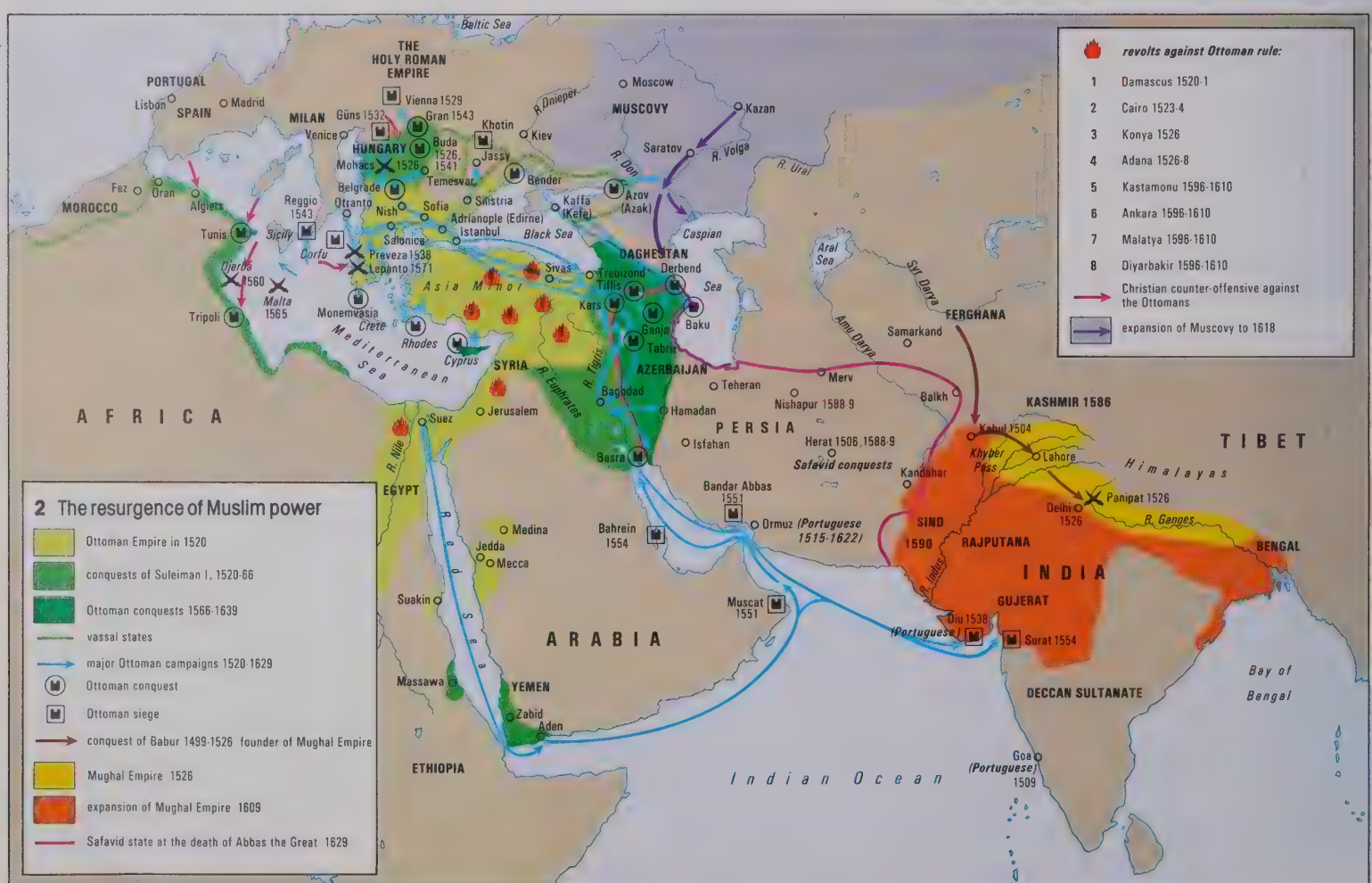

HUNGARY
Kiev
Yelets
MOLDAVIA
R. Volga
KHANATE OF THE GOLDEN HORDE
WALLACHIA
R. Dnieper
R. Danube
R. Don
Sarai
Tana
Kaffa
Black Sea
CHAGATAI
KHANATE
Astrakhan
Ankara
(Angora)
1402
Trebizond
Aral
Sea
Syr Darya
Tiflis
Caspian Sea
Amu Darya
Urgench
Otrar
Tashkent
Samarkand
Ayas
R. Tigris
Tabriz
Med. Sea
Maragheh
Bukhara
Damascus
Nishapur
Merv
Jerusalem
Baghdad
Hamadan
Rai
Khotan
R. Euphrates
Herat
Kabul
Isfahan
ARABIA
TIMUR'S EMPIRE
Basra
Shiraz
Kandahar
Lahore
Red Sea
Persian Gulf
Mecca
Ormuz
R. Indus
4 The conquests of Timur, 1370-1405
Timur's campaigns
SULTANATE
OF DELHI

The Muslim resurgence
1301-1639

The revival of Islam after 1300 and the great wave of Muslim expansion that followed, dominated the next four centuries, far more so than European expansion, which had only marginal effects before 1700. After 1354 the Christian west stood on the defensive, while the Turks conquered the whole of Europe east of the Adriatic and south of the Danube. The progress of Islam in the east was equally remarkable. By 1500 northern India was under Muslim rule, and most of the south after 1565 when the last surviving Hindu state, Vijayanagar, succumbed. It prevailed also in the oases of central Asia, in the outlying provinces of Ming China, and was making rapid headway in Java.

This amazing revival was the more remarkable because in 1258, when the Mongols sacked Baghdad and overthrew the caliphate (page 46), the Muslim world was in disarray. The Seljuk sultanate (page 40) had broken up after half a century, and only the Mamelukes of Egypt and Syria maintained any sort of political stability. Two factors transformed the situation. One was the revitalisation of Islam itself under the impact of Sufi mysticism. The other was the infiltration, with or in the wake of the Mongols, of Turkic peoples from central Asia, who, after conversion and assimilation, became the spearhead of Muslim advance. It was they who, in 1206, set up the Delhi Sultanate, the leading Indian state until the appearance in 1526 of Babur, another warrior from inner Asia. In the west Turkish warriors settled around 1265 in the Anatolian borderlands, and here in 1301 their leader, Osman, founded a state which became the core of the future Ottoman empire (map 1). By 1354 the Turks had crossed the Dardanelles to Gallipoli, and their victory at Kosovo (1389) and repulse of a Christian counter-offensive at Nicopolis (1396) left them masters of the Balkans. Only the invasion of Timur (page 46) and his destruction of the Turkish army at Ankara (1402) gave hard-pressed Byzantium respite. But the renewal of expansion under Murad II (1421–51) and Mehemmed II (1451–81) sealed its fate. In 1453 Constantinople fell, and Mehemmed went on to extend control over Moldavia, the Crimea and Trebizond, turning the Black Sea into an Ottoman lake.

By the time that Suleiman the Magnificent (1520–66) succeeded to the throne, the Ottoman empire was one of the world's leading powers, comparable with Ming China or Charles V's empire in the west. But now two other empires arose to share pre-eminence in the Muslim world. The one was the Mughal empire, founded by Babur in 1526, but only consolidated by his grandson, Akbar (1556–1605). The other was Persia, which had been in a state of chaos ever since it was overrun by Timur. Here, in 1500, the leader of a fanatical Shi'a sect, Ismail Safavi, seized Tabriz, crowned himself shah as Ismail I (1500–24), and quickly reunited the country. Safavid Persia reached its peak under Abbas I (1587–1629), by which time the three Muslim empires controlled a wide belt of territory from the frontiers of Austria and Morocco to the borders of China, the foothills of the Himalayas and the Bay of Bengal (map 2). But their divisions and rivalries, particularly the clash between Sunnite Turkey and Shi'ite Persia, drove a wedge into the Muslim world, comparable to the conflict between Catholics and Protestants in western Europe. Shi'ism had originated centuries earlier over the question of the true succession to the Prophet Mohammed; but wider issues, religious and political, were involved. In Persia a resurgent nationalism certainly played a part. The Safavids were the first native Persian dynasty since Sasanian times, and Ismail I's decision to make Shi'ism the Persian state religion was a challenge to the orthodox Turkish sultan. The Ottoman reaction was swift. In 1514 Ismail's armies were defeated near Tabriz. In 1516, to prevent the heresy from spreading, Syria and Egypt were taken over. These successes enabled Suleiman to resume the Ottoman advance in Europe. After the battle of Mohács (1526) Hungary was overrun and Vienna was besieged (1529). But Persia remained a thorn in the Ottoman side. The long wars against the Safavids (1534–35, 1554–55, 1577–90, 1603–19) were not the only reason for the Muslim decline which became apparent after 1560, but they certainly hastened it. This was a great age of Islamic art and architecture, particularly in Persia and India. But in a changing world Islam remained static. All three Muslim empires were essentially land-based; but now hegemony was passing to the sea, and to the peoples on the fringe – the Dutch, the French, the English – who knew how to master and exploit it.



COSSACK SETTLEMENTS
RUSSIA
R. Dniester (Turla)
R. Prut
R. Dnieper (Ak Su)
Suczawa
Jassy (Yaş)
MOLDAVIA (1455) (BOĞDAN)
TRANSYLVANIA
Carpathians
Akkerman
BUJAK (1484)
KHANATE OF THE CRIMEA (VASSAL 1475)
Tergoviste
WALLACHIA (1396) (EFLÂK)
Bucharest (Bükreş)
Kilia
Azov (Azak)
R. Don
Sea of Azov
Vidin
Giurgiu (Yergögü)
Silistria
DOBRUJA
Bakhchesaray (Bahçesaray)
Kerch (Kerç)
Kaffa (Kefe)
Nicopolis 1396
1444
Varna
Sofia
Trnovo
Black Sea
CIRCASSIA (ÇERKES)
Philippopolis (Filibe)
Adrianople (Edirne) 1365
Bosporus
Istanbul (Constantinople) 1453
Sinop
JANDAR (KASTAMONU) 1393 1461
Kastamonu
Samsun
Gallipoli (Gelibolu)
nucleus of Ottoman state c. 1281
Dardanelles
Bursa 1326
KARASI 1345
Söğüt 1285
Eskişehir 1289
Amasya
Trebizond (Trabzon) 1461
EMPIRE OF TREBIZOND
Caucasus Mts
Ankara 1402
Manisa
ANATOLIA
SARUHAN 1390
GERMIYAN 1380
Smyrna (Izmir)
Chios
Genoa
Sivas
SIVAS 1398
Erzurum
Tiflis
Ottuk-Beli 1473
KARAKOYUNLU
AYDIN 1390
HAMID 1381 1468
Kayseri
Konya
KARAMAN 1390 1468
MENTEŞE 1390
TEKKE 1391
Taurus Mts
DHU'L-KADR 1398 1515
Kurdistan
AKKOYUNLU
Diyarbakir
Lake Van
Çaldiran 1514
Rhodes
KNIGHTS OF ST JOHN
Adana
Marj Dabik 1516
Aleppo 1516
R. Tigris
Lake Urmia
Tabriz 1514
Cyprus
Rakka
Mediterranean Sea
Mosul
Tripoli
Beirut
SAFAVID EMPIRE (from 1501)
Damascus 1516
MAMELUKE EMPIRE (1517)
R. Euphrates
Alexandria
Jerusalem
Baghdad
Raydaniyya
Cairo 1517
Suez
MAMELUKE
R. Nile
to 3rd cataract of the R. Nile
Red Sea
1 The Ottoman advance, 1300-1520
probable extent of Ottoman state c. 1300
main routes of Ottoman advance
conquests of Osman c. 1300-26
conquests of Orkhan 1326-62
conquests of Murad I, 1362-89
1390 absorbed Emirates with date of first absorption
conquests of Bayezid 1389-1402
(1389) other places and dates of Ottoman conquest
vassal states of Bayezid 1402
Venetian territories
invasion of Timur (Tamerlane) 1402
successive centres of Ottoman state, with dates of conquest
reduced frontiers of Ottoman state after Timur's invasion and civil war of 1403-13
Emirates restored by Timur in 1402
1468 date of final reincorporation into Ottoman Empire
Western crusades against the Ottoman state
conquests and re-conquests 1413-51 (Mehemmed I 1413-21, Murad II, 1421-51)
boundary of Ottoman state at the accession of Mehemmed II, 1451
vassal states 1451
vassal states 1512
Ottoman empire in 1512
western frontiers of Safavid state in c. 1512 including tributary states
major campaigns of Selim I, 1512-1520
Ottoman sphere of influence c. 1520

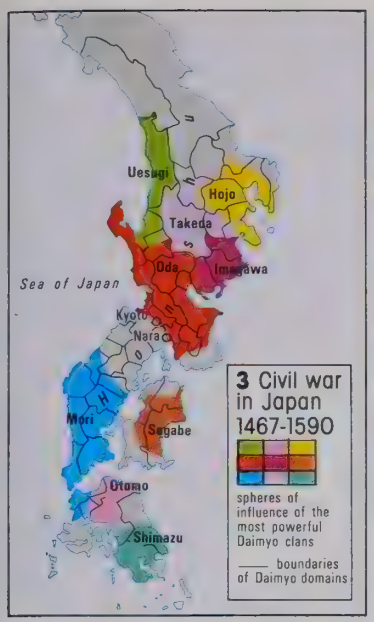
China and its neighbours
618-1644

The recovery of China from the barbarian invasions of the fourth and fifth centuries (page 32) was the work of the Sui dynasty (581–617). But it was the T'ang (618–907) who ushered in one of the great ages of Chinese history. Under the T'ang and their successors, the Sung (960–1279), China attained a level of prosperity, social stability and civilisation far ahead of contemporary Europe; and it was only another wave of invasion from inner Asia, this time the Mongols (page 46), that brought this era of wellbeing to a temporary halt. During the period of Mongol domination (1280–1368) much of the land was devastated, particularly in the north, and the population, which in 1280 probably topped 100 million, was reduced by 1393 to 60 million. The Ming dynasty (1368–1644) reversed these setbacks and put China back on the course charted by its T'ang predecessors.

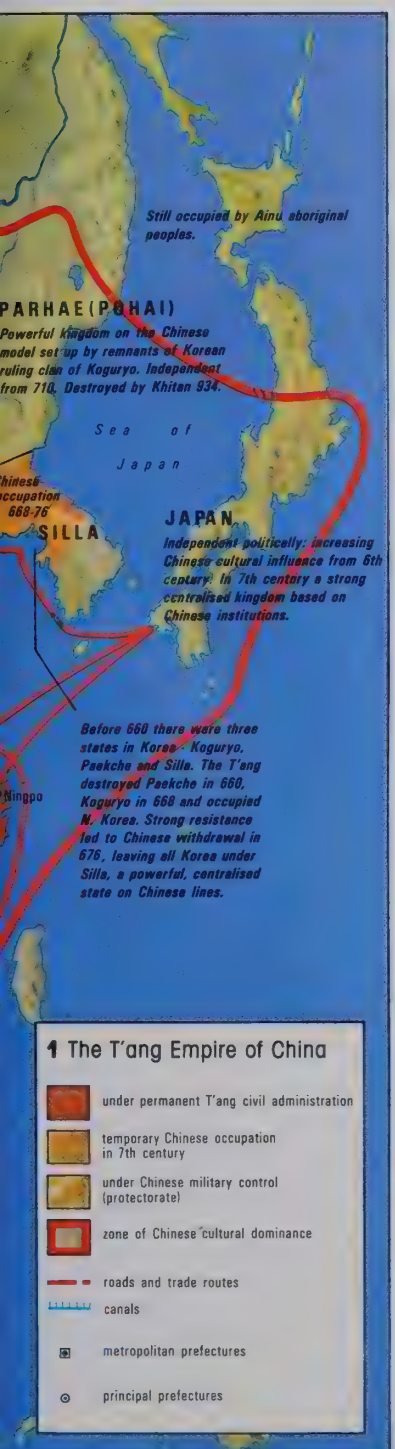
T'ang China (map 1) was a centralised empire with a uniform administrative organisation of prefectures, in which the old ruling aristocracy was replaced by officials recruited by an examination system which lasted into the twentieth century. A massive movement of population into the fertile Yangtze valley and southern China produced large agricultural surpluses which stimulated trade and urban development. The T'ang also embarked on an ambitious programme of external expansion which carried them in the north-west to the Tarim Basin before they were halted by the Arabs at the Talas river in 751. By 649, the end of the reign of T'ai-tsung, 88 Asiatic peoples recognised Chinese overlordship. But the widespread military expeditions over-extended the empire's resources, many of the gains proved only temporary, and after 1127 even north China was lost and only recovered after the fall of the Mongol dynasty in 1386. Their successors, the Ming, also engaged in an active foreign policy, particularly against the Mongols in the north (map 4), but these ventures proved too costly and sparked off a series of rebellions which, coupled with external pressures from the Manchus in Liaotung and Japanese raiders, toppled the dynasty.

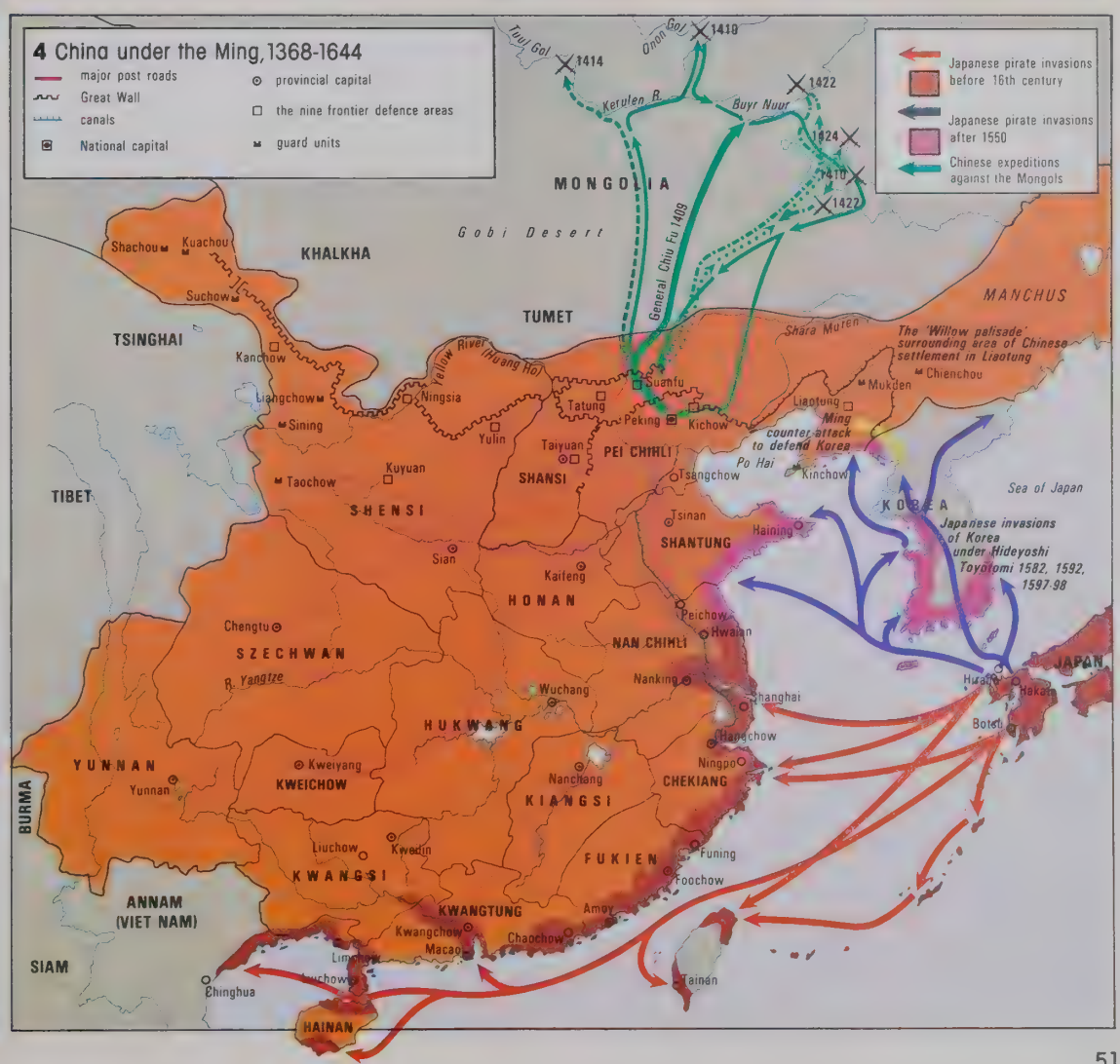
Military and political reverses did not impede the expansion of Chinese culture and political institutions to all her neighbouring states. Those most directly affected were Korea, under Chinese rule from 668 to 676 and a vassal state after 1392, Japan and South-East Asia, though in the latter region, where they came into contact with Indian and (from about AD 1300) Islamic influences, they were largely confined to north Vietnam. In South-East Asia the small temple states of the ninth to twelfth centuries (Prambanan, Angkor, Pagan), established under Hindu and Buddhist influence, gave way after the thirteenth century to new political centres (Ava, Pegu, Phnom Penh), while in Vietnam, where Chinese attempts at reconquest failed, a new kingdom of Dai Viet arose. But behind the fluctuating political fortunes the outstanding fact was the formative influence of Hinduism, Buddhism and Confucianism; their assimilation defined the distinctive character of South-East Asian civilisation (map 2).

In Japan Chinese influence was more direct. As early as AD 645 the whole administration had been remodelled on the pattern of T'ang China. The two capitals, Nara (710) and Kyoto (794), were copied from the T'ang capital of Changan, and Buddhism was introduced from China. But after 1192 the bureaucratic state was displaced by a feudalised society, until finally, between 1467 and 1590, the country broke up into a series of warring Daimyo clans (map 3). It was the work of Oda Nobunaga (1534–82) and Hideyoshi Toyotomi (1535–98) to bring the anarchy under control, and prepare the way for the Tokugawa shogunate which gave Japan 250 years of internal peace and prosperity until, in the middle of the nineteenth century the western powers forced Japan into the modern world (page 126).


Uesugi
Hojo
Takeda
Oda
Imagawa
Sea of Japan
Kyoto
Nara
Mori
Segabe
Otomo
Shimazu
3 Civil war in Japan 1467-1590
spheres of influence of the most powerful Daimyo clans
boundaries of Daimyo domains

BURMA
KINGDOM OF NANCHAO
CHINA
ARAKAN
Halin
Vaisali
Pagan
Ava
Mogaung
R. Chindwin
R. Salween
Black River
Red River
Thang Long (Hanoi)
Sri Ksetra (Prome)
Toungoo
Chiengmai
Luang Prabang
LAOS
DAI VIET
Vientiane
Korat Plain
R. Mekong
Bassein
Pegu
Thaton
Sukhothai
R. Irrawaddy
Gulf of Martaban
SIAM
Sitep
Ayutthaya
U Tong
Nakhon Pathom
DVARAVATI
Andaman Sea
Angkor
Sambor Prei Kuk
CAMBODIA
CHAMPA
Vijaya (Binh Dinh)
Nha Trang
Phan Rang
Phnom Penh
Isthmus of Kra
Chaiya
Gulf of Siam
Angkor Borei
Oc Eo
Takua Pa
Ligor
Malay Peninsula
ATJEH
Kuala Selinsing
SULTANATE OF MALACCA
Malacca
Tumasik (Singapore)
Sumatra
SRIVIJAYAN EMPIRE
Lingga
R. Jambi
Jambi (Malayu)
Palembang
Java Sea
Sunda Strait
Indian Ocean
PAJAJARAN
Majapahit
Borobudur
Prambanan
KEDIRI
Java
Madura
Singhasari
Bali
Sumbawa
Flores
Timor
BRUNEI
R. Rajang
Borneo
Celebes Sea
Makakam
Celebes
Tidore
The Moluccas (Spice Islands)
Banda Sea
South China Sea
2 South-East Asia, AD 500-1500
Hindu-Buddhist remains and temples AD 500-1300
major political centres of c.AD 1200-c.1300
Mongol attacks 1257-92
Dai Viet Kingdom: independent from 10th century
Champa Kingdom: gradually absorbed by Dai Viet (11th-15th centuries).
Khmers: their temple kingdoms united under Angkor (9th-14th centuries).
Thai-Lao-Shan region: the Thai peoples expanded southwards from the 12th century, conquering the Mons of Dvaravati. Shan states later fell under Burmese domination.
Mons: their kingdoms of Thaton (11th century) and Pegu (14th-16th centuries) were later absorbed by the Burmese, and their kingdom of Dvaravati (7th-13th centuries) by the Thais.
Burmese: their empire of Pagan (11th-13th centuries) was succeeded by Ava and other states (14th-16th centuries)
Arakanese: their Muslim kingdom independent in 14th and 15th centuries; later absorbed by Burma.
In maritime S.E. Asia temple kingdoms are found in Java and seafaring trading states flourished, notably the Srivijayan empire of Sumatra and the Malay Peninsula (7th-13th centuries).


Still occupied by Ainu aboriginal peoples.
PARHAE (POHAI)
Powerful kingdom on the Chinese model set up by remnants of Korean ruling clan of Koguryo. Independent from 710. Destroyed by Khitan 934.
Sea of Japan
Chinese occupation 668-76
SILLA
JAPAN
Independent politically; increasing Chinese cultural influence from 6th century. In 7th century a strong centralised kingdom based on Chinese institutions.
Before 660 there were three states in Korea - Koguryo, Paekche and Silla. The T'ang destroyed Paekche in 660, Koguryo in 668 and occupied N. Korea. Strong resistance led to Chinese withdrawal in 676, leaving all Korea under Silla, a powerful, centralised state on Chinese lines.
Ningpo
1 The T'ang Empire of China
under permanent T'ang civil administration
temporary Chinese occupation in 7th century
under Chinese military control (protectorate)
zone of Chinese cultural dominance
roads and trade routes
canals
metropolitan prefectures
principal prefectures


4 China under the Ming, 1368-1644
major post roads
Great Wall
canals
National capital
provincial capital
the nine frontier defence areas
guard units
Japanese pirate invasions before 16th century
Japanese pirate invasions after 1550
Chinese expeditions against the Mongols
Tuul Gol
Onon Gol
1410
1414
1422
1424
1427
Kerulen R.
Buyr Nuur
MONGOLIA
Gobi Desert
General Chiu Fu 1409
KHALKHA
Shachou
Kuachou
Suchow
TUMET
MANCHUS
TSINGHAI
Kanchow
Yellow River (Huang Ho)
Shara Muren
The 'Willow palisade' surrounding area of Chinese settlement in Liaotung
Chienchou
Mukden
Liaotung
Liangchow
Ningsia
Suanfu
Tatung
Peking
Kichow
Sining
Yulin
Taiyuan
PEI CHIHLI
Ming counter attack to defend Korea
Po Hai
Kinchow
Tsangchow
Kuyuan
Taochow
SHANSI
TIBET
SHENSI
Sea of Japan
KOREA
Tsinan
Haining
SHANTUNG
Japanese invasions of Korea under Hideyoshi Toyotomi 1582, 1592, 1597-98
Sian
Kaifeng
HONAN
Chengtu
Peichow
Hwaian
SZECHWAN
NAN CHIHLI
R. Yangtze
Nanking
Wuchang
Shanghai
JAPAN
Hakata
Hangchow
HUKWANG
Botoli
YUNNAN
Kweiyang
Yunnan
KWEICHOW
Nanchang
Ningpo
CHEKIANG
KIANGSI
BURMA
Liuchow
Kweilin
FUKIEN
Funing
Foochow
KWANGSI
ANNAM (VIET NAM)
KWANGTUNG
Amoy
Kwangchow
Macao
Chaochow
SIAM
Chinghua
Tainan
HAINAN

Northern and Western Europe, 930-1314

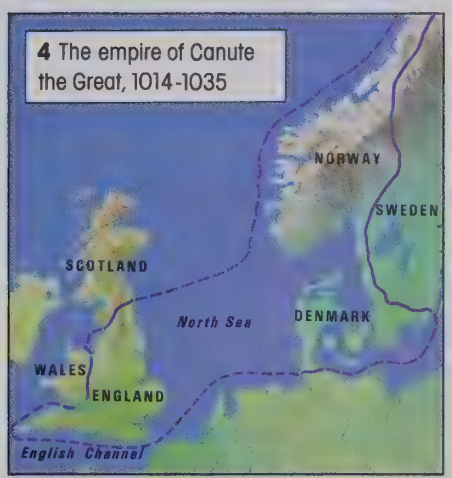
Two features marked the period following the Viking and Magyar invasions in northern and western Europe: the emergence of settled states and the spread of Christianity. The two went hand in hand. Both in Scandinavia and in the Slavonic east the Christian church, introduced in Denmark by Harold Bluetooth in 965, in Norway by Olaf Tryggveson (995–1000), in Bohemia by Boleslav II (967–99), and in Poland by Miesko I (960–92), contributed substantially to political cohesion. The rise of powerful kingdoms in Poland and Denmark was also in part a response to German pressure. In Poland (map 1) the Piast dynasty united the tribes of Great (or northern) Poland. Boleslav Chrobry (992–1025) not only added Little Poland, Silesia and Lausitz but also temporarily Bohemia and Moravia. In Denmark Harold Bluetooth (940–86) defended Slesvig from German attack, strengthening and extending the fortified Danevirke (map 3). In Norway and Sweden development was hampered by formidable geographical obstacles (map 5). Under Sweyn I, who also became king of England in 1013, both countries were under Danish control; and Sweyn's son Canute the Great (1014–35) ruled a great but short-lived Anglo-Scandinavian empire (map 4). Following an interlude under Edward the Confessor (1042–66) England passed under Norman rule (page 36). Norway achieved independence and was united under Magnus the Good (1033–47). Sweden (except for the southern provinces which remained under Danish rule) was welded together by the kings of Uppland, and Denmark itself settled down within its frontiers after the death of Sweyn II (1047–74).

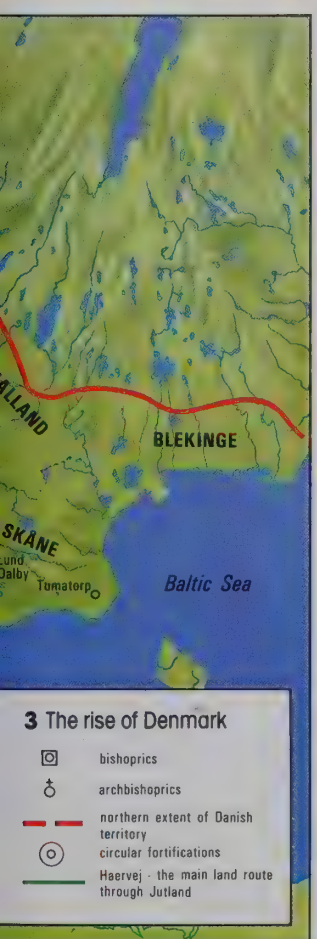
Nevertheless all countries were plagued by dynastic conflict and aristocratic resistance. In Poland Boleslav Chrobry's ambitious foreign policy provoked a sharp reaction after his death. In England William the Conqueror was faced by baronial unrest as early as 1074. But it was France that suffered most from feudal disruption. The Capetian kings, who displaced the Carolingians in 987, were confined to the Ile de France, and even here royal authority was insecure until the reign of Louis VI (1108–37). Even then the Capetians lagged behind the feudal princes. The continental possessions of Henry II of England (the so-called Angevin Empire) far outmatched the French royal domain (map 2). When Philip Augustus (1180–1223) conquered Normandy (1204) and the Angevin Empire collapsed, English rule was confined to Gascony, and the Capetians embarked on a policy of expansion which carried them to the Mediterranean by 1229.

In England expansion had begun on the morrow of the Conquest when Norman barons invaded Wales and set up extensive marcher lordships. A century later they moved on to Ireland. By 1250 two-thirds of the country had been occupied, but Ireland remained divided and rebellious. So also did Wales which had seen a remarkable national resurgence under Llewellyn the Great (1197–1240). But Edward I (1272–1307) would not brook Welsh independence. After a first campaign (1276), followed by systematic castle building to enforce English control, a second campaign in 1283 (map 7) placed the principality directly under royal administration in 1284. Edward's attempt in 1296 to repeat the process in Scotland was a costly failure, culminating in the English defeat at Bannockburn in 1314. Like his French contemporary, Philip the Fair (1285–1314), defeated by the Flemings in 1302, Edward had overreached himself. The great baronial families, still firmly ensconced (map 6), forced him in 1297 to confirm the charters wrested from King John in 1215. It was a prelude to the aristocratic reaction and the setbacks of the fourteenth century.

Gdańsk
founded before 990
MASOVIA
R. Vistula
R. Bug
KIEVAN
RUSSIA
Opole
(981-1018 Russian;
1018-33 Polish;
1033- Russian)
LITTLE POLAND
(incorporated c.992-99)
Cracow 1000
Esztergom
1001
Visegrád capital of Hungary and
seat of monarchy before Pest
HUNGARY

6 The British Isles, 1215-1307
boundary of England and Scotland 1157
land claimed by Scotland 1139-57
English Marcher lordships in Wales
Principality of Wales 1284
County Palatine of Chester with Flint
Edward I's Scottish campaign 1296
meetings of Edward I's Parliament
Clare great landowners c.1307
Ireland:
Norman conquests 1169-1215
Norman conquests 1215-1307
Irish lands 1307
Norman castles
KINGDOM OF SCOTLAND to 1286
INVERNESS
Inverness
Elgin
SCOTLAND
ABERDEEN
Aberdeen
PERTH
Brechin
Scone
Perth
Montrose
ARGYLE
FIFE
St. Andrews
Stirling 1297
Bannockburn 1314
Dunbar 1296
Edinburgh
LOTHIAN
Berwick
CLYDESDALE
Roxburgh
CARRICK
DUMFRIES
North Sea
Lancaster
Percy
Derry
TIRCONNELL
TIROWEN
ULSTER 1205
1257
1270
Armagh
CONNACHT 1235
Solway Firth
Carlisle
Durham
Neville
COUNTY PALATINE OF DURHAM
Newcastle
Isle of Man
Brittany
Neville
Lancaster
Mowbray
Lancaster
Cornwall
York
R. Humber
Percy
Lancaster
Lacy
Warenne
Irish Sea
MEATH 1172
Galway
Athlone
Dublin
1318
IRELAND
Lacy
Cornwall
Lancaster
Chester
Lincoln
R. Shannon
Limerick
LEINSTER 1172
Lacy
Lancaster
Lacy
Nottingham
Lacy
The Wash
Warenne
Fitzalan
R. Trent
Mowbray
Cornwall
Brittany
Clare
Brittany
Bigod
Norwich
DESMOND
Wexford
Shrewsbury
R. Severn
ENGLAND
R. Welland
Lancaster
Bohun
R. Ouse
Bigod
Cornwall
Waterford
Cork
1261
Bantry
WALES
Mortimer
Beauchamp
R. Avon
Warwick
Bury St. Edmunds
Cardigan
Mortimer
Cambridge
Strongbow
1169-70
Henry II 1172
St. David's
Bohun
Evesham 1265
Brittany
R. Ouse
Valence
Vere
Clare
Milford Haven
Valence
Lancaster
Clare
Bohun
Gloucester
Oxford
Llandaff
Bristol Channel
Bristol
Clare
Valence
Lancaster
R. Thames
Cornwall
Bohun
London
Runnymede
Magne Carta
signed 1215
Canterbury
Clare
Cornwall
Salisbury
Winchester
Valence
Warenne
Dover
Exeter
Clare
Lacy
Clare
Fitzalan
Lewes
1264
Hastings
Cornwall
English Channel


4 The empire of Canute
the Great, 1014-1035
NORWAY
SWEDEN
SCOTLAND
North Sea
DENMARK
WALES
ENGLAND
English Channel


BLEKINGE
SKÅNE
Lund
Dalby
Tumatorp
Baltic Sea
3 The rise of Denmark
bishoprics
archbishoprics
northern extent of Danish
territory
circular fortifications
Haervej - the main land route
through Jutland

5 The Northern
Kingdoms
c.1035
Norwegian Sea
THRANDHEIM
Nidaros
SWEDEN
HORTHALAND
NORWAY
Oslo
UPPLAND
Uppsala
Sigtuna
GAUTLAND
Baltic Sea
SKÅNE
JUTLAND
Roskilde
DENMARK
Hedeby
DITMARSH
Bremen

7 The conquest of Wales,1283-4
Principality of Wales under
Llewellyn 1282
Edward I's Welsh castles
Edward I's campaigns 1283-4
Anglesey
Rhuddlan
Conway
Beaumaris
Bangor
Denbigh
1283
Flint
Chester
R. Conway
Hope
Caernarvon
Dolwyddelan
R. Dee
GWYNEDD
Criccieth
Harlech
POWYS
Bere 1284 (last Welsh stronghold)
R. Severn
Shrewsbury
Montgomery
Llanbadarn
WALES
MARCH OF WALES
CEREDIGION
Builth
Hereford
Cardigan
Llandovery
DYFED
Dinefwr (Dinevor)
(R. Towy)
Llandeilo
Carreg Cennen
GWENT
R. Tywi
Kidwelly
Usk
Pembroke
GLAMORGAN
Caerphilly
Cardiff

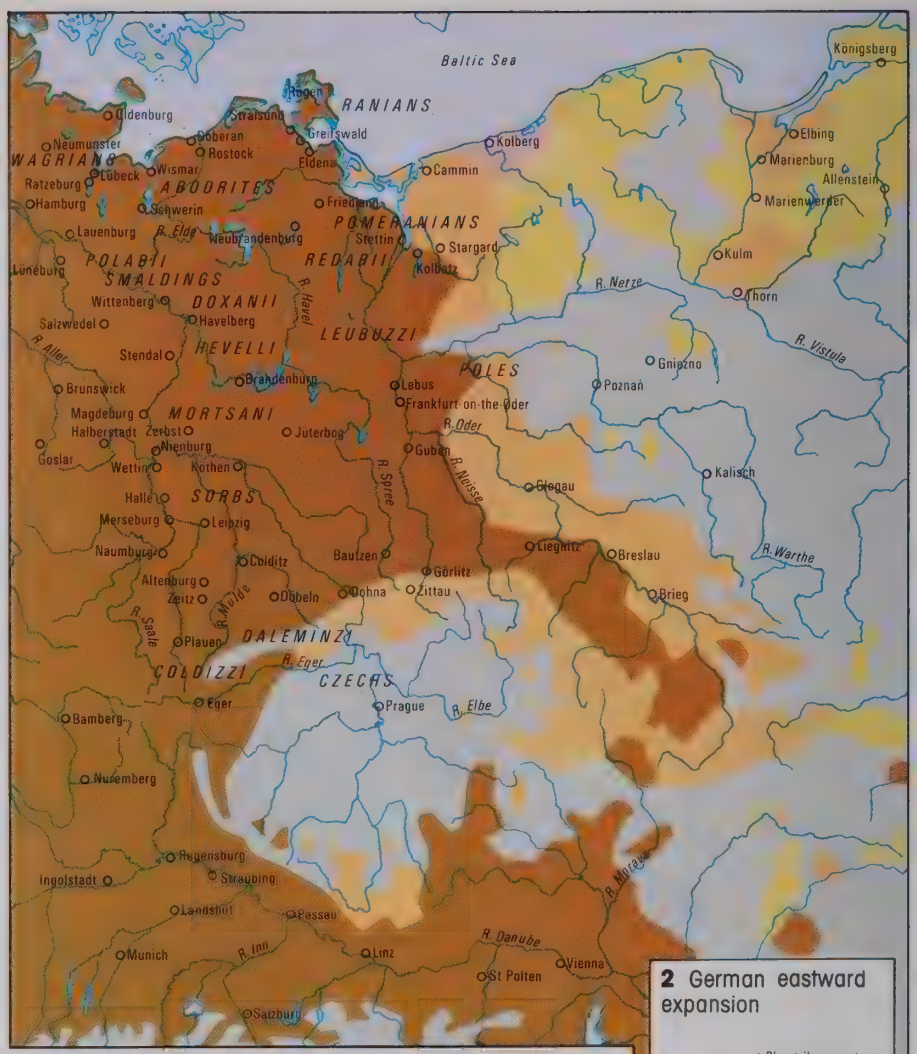
The medieval German Empire
962-1356

Germany, or the eastern half of the Frankish empire, was the first country in Europe to recover from the setbacks of the ninth century invasions (page 36). This fact assured its predominance for upward of three centuries. German rulers never sought to assert control over the West Frankish lands, but, as heirs to the Carolingians, they claimed the imperial title and the right to rule over Italy and the lands of the former 'Middle Kingdom.' Germany's control of the Alpine passes between Lombardy and the Rhinelands assured not only its political preponderance but also gave it a leading place in the cultural exchange between Mediterranean and northern Europe.

There was, at first, no sense of a common German, or East Frankish, identity, and the effective control of the first German ruler, Henry I of Saxony (919–936), scarcely extended beyond Saxony and Franconia (map 1). But his son, Otto I (936–973), brought the other German duchies under royal control. Also, by defeating the Magyars at the battle of Lechfeld (955), he freed Germany from external threats and was able, in 951 and 961, to intervene effectively in Italy. His coronation as emperor (962) sealed the historic connexion between Germany and Italy. As heir to the Carolingian tradition, he also inaugurated a Christian drive against the pagan Slavs on the eastern frontier. But the great Slav revolt of 983 halted this advance until the twelfth century, and German efforts were concentrated instead on the south and south-west. The result, in 1034, was the addition of Burgundy to the imperial domains.

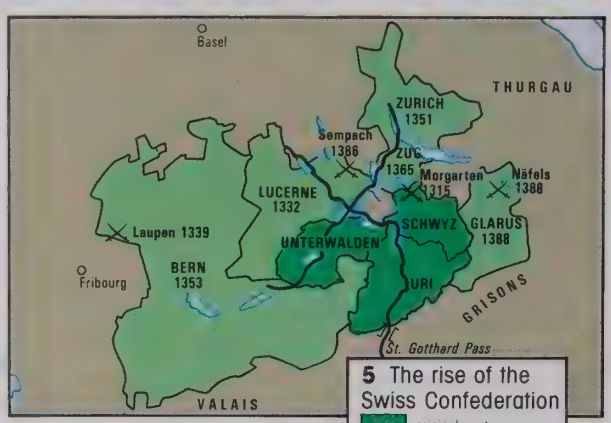
In spite of these successes, aristocratic resistance to royal centralisation was never overcome, and an opportunity to renew it came in 1075, when the outbreak of conflict between the emperor Henry IV (1056–1106) and the papacy, which saw imperial power in Italy as a threat to its independence, played into the German princes' hands. The ensuing civil war (1076–1122) was a turning point in German history. Although the monarchy emerged successful, its position was permanently weakened. German power was apparently restored during the reign of Frederick I (1152–1190), but it depended increasingly on the riches of Italy, and this embroiled Frederick not only with the papacy but also with the Italian cities. The marriage of his son, Henry VI, with Constance, the heiress of Sicily (1186), held out new possibilities. But the prospect of the union of Sicily and the empire alarmed the papacy, which saw itself being encircled, and led to the final struggle between Frederick II (1212–1250), and Pope Innocent IV (1243–1254).

Meanwhile Germany was being overtaken by the western monarchies (page 52). The empire under Frederick II was still the most imposing political body in Europe (map 3), but by 1200 Paris was the intellectual and cultural centre of Europe, and by comparison with England and Sicily Germany's financial organisation was antiquated. Eastward expansion had begun again after 1138 (map 2). It added two-thirds to the German territories and shifted the seat of power from Rhine to Elbe. But the beneficiaries were the princes on the eastern frontier, not the monarchy. Later, the Teutonic Knights conquered heathen Prussia (map 4), but within the empire the tendency was to fragmentation rather than expansion, and gains in the east were offset by loss of control over Italy which now went its own way (page 56). In default of royal authority local leagues were formed to resist princely encroachments and to preserve the peace. The most famous and enduring was the Swiss Confederation, formed in 1291 (map 5). The Golden Bull of 1356, formally recognising the autonomy of the princes, marked the beginning of a new era in German history; but the age of German preponderance in Europe had already ended a century earlier.



2 German eastward expansion

- SORBS — west Slav tribes most affected by German expansion
- expansion to 1250
- expansion 1250 to 1300
- expansion during 14th century



5 The rise of the Swiss Confederation

- original cantons 1291-1315
- cantons added to 1389
- battles for independence
- main roads

4 The conquest of Prussia

- advance of Teutonic Knights
- swamp and wilderness
- occupied before 1309
- occupied 1309-1382
- occupied 1382-1411
- Riga 1201 — foundation date of town

1 The East Frankish Kingdom of Otto I

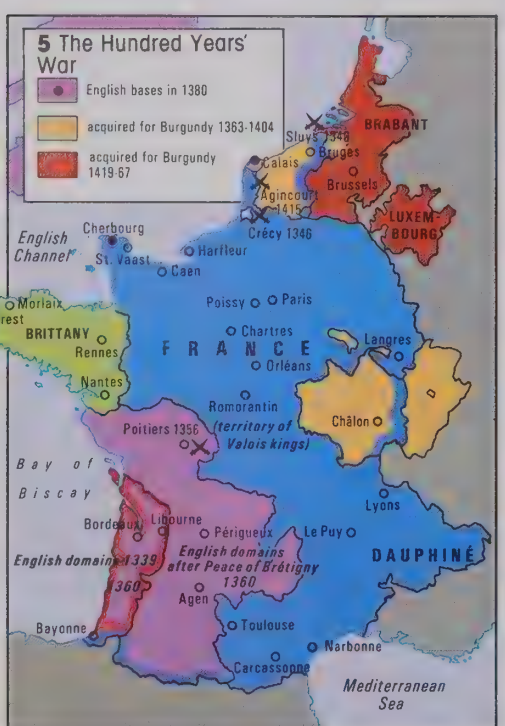
- royal mint under Otto I
- Otto's main campaigns
- main Magyar raids

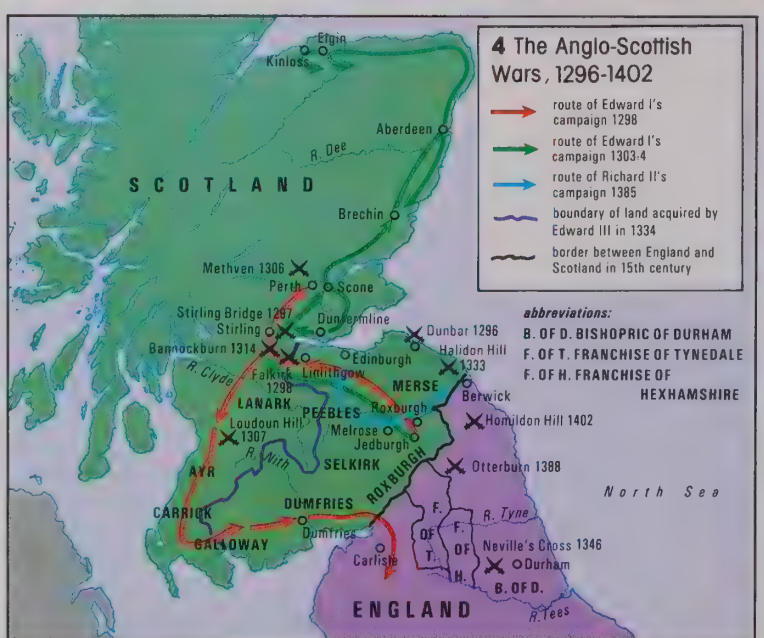
North Sea
Baltic Sea
Holstein
Bornhöved 1227
Lübeck
Hamburg
Schwerin
Bremen
Lüneburg
Cammin
Stettin
Gdansk (Danzig)
Pomeranja
Havelberg
Brandenburg
Gniezno
Poznań
Altmark
DUCHY OF BRUNSWICK (after 1235)
Saxony
Utrecht
Lower Lorraine
Münster
Dortmund
DUCHY OF WESTPHALIA (after 1180)
Paderborn
Magdeburg
Goslar
ANHALT (After 1180)
Naumburg
Lusatia
Meissen
Thuringia
Hersfeld
Erfurt
Altenburg
Freiberg
Silesia
Wrocław (Breslau)
Bruges
Ghent
Brussels
Brabant
Aachen
Cologne
Bouvines 1214
Liège
Hainaut
Cambrai
KINGDOM OF LORRAINE
Frankfurt
Gelnhausen
Mainz
Worms
Würzburg
Bamberg
Eger
Prague
KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA
Trier
Franconia
Kaiserslautern
Verdun
Metz
Trifels
Speyer
Nuremberg
Regensburg
Moravia
Toul
Hagenau
Strassburg
Hohenstaufen
Upper Lorraine
Ulm
Augsburg
Bavaria
Austria
Vienna
Alsace
Swabia
Munich
Besancon
Basel
Constance
Salzburg
Semmering
GERMANY
Styria
Zurich
Burgundy
Brenner
Tyrol
Brixen
Carinthia
Septimer
St. Gotthard
Bozen
Pontebba
KINGDOM OF ARLES
Lyons
St. Bernard
Como
Trient
Friuli
Verona
Aquileia
Bergamo
Vicenza
Treviso
Carniola
Mont Cenis
Novara
Milan
Brescia
Verona
Padua
Turin
Vercelli
Lodi
Crema
Pavia
Cremona
Venice
VENETIAN TERRITORIES
Piacenza
Mantua
Savoy
Asti
Alessandria
Tortona
Parma
Modena
Reggio
Ferrara
Lombardy
Genoa
Bologna
Imola
Ravenna
Faenza
Rimini
expansion of Papal States under Innocent III
Pistoia
Lucca
Florence
Arles
Provence
Pisa
ITALY
Marseilles
Arezzo
Ancona
Siena
Perugia
Tuscany
Assisi
Orvieto
Adriatic Sea
Spoleto
Viterbo
Rieti
PAPAL PATRIMONY
Tagliacozzo 1268
Tivoli
Rome
Ostia
Tusculum
Anagni
1190
Apricena
Lucera
1193
San Germano
Troia
Foggia
Barletta
1191
1194
Gaeta
Benevento
Capua
Melfi
Bari
Naples
Salerno
KINGDOM OF SICILY
Brindisi
Amalfi
Taranto
Lecce
Cosenza
Palermo
Monreale
Messina
Reggio
Trapani
Cefalu
Catania
Syracuse
3 The Hohenstaufen Empire 1152-1250
eastward spread of German peasant settlement 12th century
German settlement by 1200-1250
city with over 10,000 inhabitants
member of Lombard Leagues of 1167 and 1226
member of 1167 League only
member of 1226 League only
German invasions 1190-94
Henry VI's Genoese and Pisan fleet 1194
main Hohenstaufen palaces and castles
mountain pass
Hedeby
Oldenburg 948
WAGRIANS
OBODRITES
WARNABI
Baltic Sea
Pomerania
March of the Billungs
937-82
POLABI
Lenzen 929
REDARII
VELETIANS
Nordmark
Havelberg 948
HEVELLI
Magdeburg 967
R. Elbe
Brandenburg 948
Gniezno 1000
Poznań 968
Lusatia
Werla
Quedlinburg
Pöhlde
Merseburg 968
LUSIZZI
SORBS
Wallhausen
Meissen 968
MILIZI
Erfurt
Zeitz 968
Meissen
POLAND
Mark Zeitz
DALEMINZI
Fulda
Salz
Prague 975
Bohemia (tributary from 950)
Regensburg
Augsburg
Bavaria
Ostmark
Pressburg
Wels 943
HUNGARY
Styria
Pitten
Carinthia (Duchy 976)
new bishopric with date of foundation
bishopric destroyed in Slav rising of 983
visited more than once by Henry I
MILIZI Slav tribes
frontier c.950

Fourteenth century Europe

After the rise and consolidation of national monarchies in Spain, France and England in the thirteenth century (page 52), the fourteenth century was a period of setbacks on all fronts in western Europe. In part, this may be attributed to a sudden climatic deterioration (the onset of the 'little ice age') which brought to an end the agricultural boom that had been virtually continuous since 1150. Already in 1315–17 Europe experienced a 'great famine', and the weakening of human powers of resistance induced by inadequate nourishment may have been one factor accounting for the rapid spread of the Black Death, or bubonic plague, which first appeared in the Crimea in 1346 and spread from there first by ship to Italy and then to the west (map 1). But there were also other factors. All the western monarchies had over-extended themselves financially, and the economic setback accentuated their difficulties. Philip IV's unsuccessful attempts to subdue Flanders played after his death (1314) into the hands of the aristocracy; so also did the involvement of Catalonia in Italy after the death of James II (1285–1327); and in England the attempt to subdue Scotland (map 4) proved to be a running sore. Ireland also virtually went its own way until Tudor times (page 72), and Wales, conquered but not subdued by Edward I (page 52), had a great national revival under Owain Glyndwr (1400–1409). Germany broke apart into rival principalities after the extermination of the Hohenstaufen dynasty (page 54), and Italy went the same way once Hohenstaufen rule was removed, breaking up into a number of local lordships or *signorie* (map 3). In the end, even the Catholic church was affected by the economic and fiscal stringency. From 1378 to 1417 it was divided by schism (map 6), which undermined its authority, while its financial extortions gave impetus to the anti-papal, reformatory movements of Hus in Bohemia and Wyclif in England.

Eastern Europe, on the other hand, was in process of recovery from the Mongol incursions of the thirteenth century (page 46). Bohemia under Charles IV (1333–78), Poland under Casimir III (1339–70), and Hungary under Louis the Great (1342–82), all made rapid strides helped perhaps by the fact that the impact of the Black Death was less severe in the east than in the west, and also by exploitation of their natural resources, such as the silver mines of Kutna Hora (map 2). In the west, on the other hand, the setback was lasting. Two English kings, Edward II (1327) and Richard II (1399) were murdered. The Hundred Years' War between England and France (map 5) resulted in widespread devastation. Overall, the Black Death reduced the population of Europe by roughly one-third. Further, the misery caused by economic recession and military ravages sparked off a series of popular risings, the Jacquerie in France and the Peasants' Revolt in England being best known (map 1), although urban discontent – the weavers' rising in Flanders under Artevelde, or the Ciompi in Florence – was no less significant in the long run. It was not until after c.1450 that recovery began (page 82); but even then under-currents of popular resentment persisted which found their outlet in the messianic movements of the Reformation (page 74).





1 Europe at the time of the Black Death
extent of spread of Black Death:
1346
1347
mid 1348
end 1348
mid 1349
end 1349
1350
c. 1351
c. 1353
little or no plague mortality
political change:
union of Kalmar 1397
Milanese territory under Giangaleazzo Visconti 1378-1402
territory under Florentine control, end 14th century
Luxembourg lands
Wittelsbach lands
Habsburg lands
social unrest:
areas of disturbance during Great Peasant Revolt in England 1381
centre of urban revolt
rural uprisings
defeats in battle of lower class
battle
religious unrest:
spread of Lollardry in England to death of Richard II, 1399
area of Hussite influence
Hussite centre
the Western Schism (inset map right):
areas giving allegiance to Pope in Rome
areas giving allegiance to Pope in Avignon
allegiance officially to Rome but shifting local allegiances
6 The Western Schism, 1378-1417
Avignon
Rome
Oslo
Uppsala
Stockholm
NORWAY
SWEDEN
RUSSIAN STATES
Novgorod
Orkneys
Hebrides
SCOTLAND
Edinburgh
North Sea
DENMARK
Baltic Sea
Copenhagen
Riga
ORDER
PRINCIPALITY OF MOSCOW
Smolensk
Visby
Königsberg
Danzig
TEUTONIC
Armagh
Carlisle
Newcastle
York
ENGLAND
Chester
Lincoln
WALES
Norwich
Lübeck
Hamburg
POMERANIA
FRIESLAND
Bremen
Roosebeke 1382
Amsterdam
SAXONY
BRANDENBURG
HOLLAND
Bury St Edmunds
London
Bristol
Winchester
Brunswick
Magdeburg
Warsaw
LITHUANIA
POLAND
Bruges
Antwerp
Ghent
Aachen
Cologne
R. Rhine
R. Elbe
R. Oder
Agincourt
Crécy
Ypres
FLANDERS
Liège
HOLY
SILESIA
Prague
Kiev
R. Dniepet
Amiens
Rouen
Trier
Frankfurt
Mainz
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
Cracow
UKRAINE
Melo 1358
Meaux 1358
Paris
Rheims
FRANCONIA
BRITTANY
Chartres
LORRAINE
ROMAN
Regensburg
Tabor
R. Oniester
Troyes
Orléans
R. Loire
Strasbourg
BAVARIA
Passau
Augsburg
Vienna
SWABIA
Munich
AUSTRIA
Basle
Constance
Salzburg
Buda
Pest
MOLDAVIA
Poitiers
BURGUNDY
SWISS CONFED.
FRANCE
Lausanne
Geneva
EMPIRE
HUNGARY
Lyons
CARINTHIA
R. Dordogne
Bordeaux
ENGLISH GASCONY
AQUITAINE
SAVOY
Milan
Venice
Trieste
REPUBLIC OF VENICE
R. Danube
Bucharest
Cahors
R. Rhône
DAUPHINÉ
Turin
Genoa
Belgrade
WALLACHIA
Black Sea
Avignon
Toulouse
Montpellier
Ravenna
BOSNIA
NAVARRE
PROVENCE
Marseilles
Narbonne
Pisa
Florence
Ancona
SERBIAN PRINCES
BULGARIA
Saragossa
PAPAL
Siena
STATES
Ragusa
CATALONIA
ARAGON
Barcelona
Corsica
Adriatic Sea
Rome
Adrianople
Constantinople
PRINCIPALITY OF ALBANIA
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
Naples
Amalfi
Salonica
OTTOMAN TURKS
Valencia
Sardinia
Balearic Islands
Mediterranean Sea
DUCHY OF Athens
ACHAEA
ATHENS
Palermo
Messina
KINGDOM OF SICILY
Rhodes
Crete

Medieval trade routes
c.1000-1500

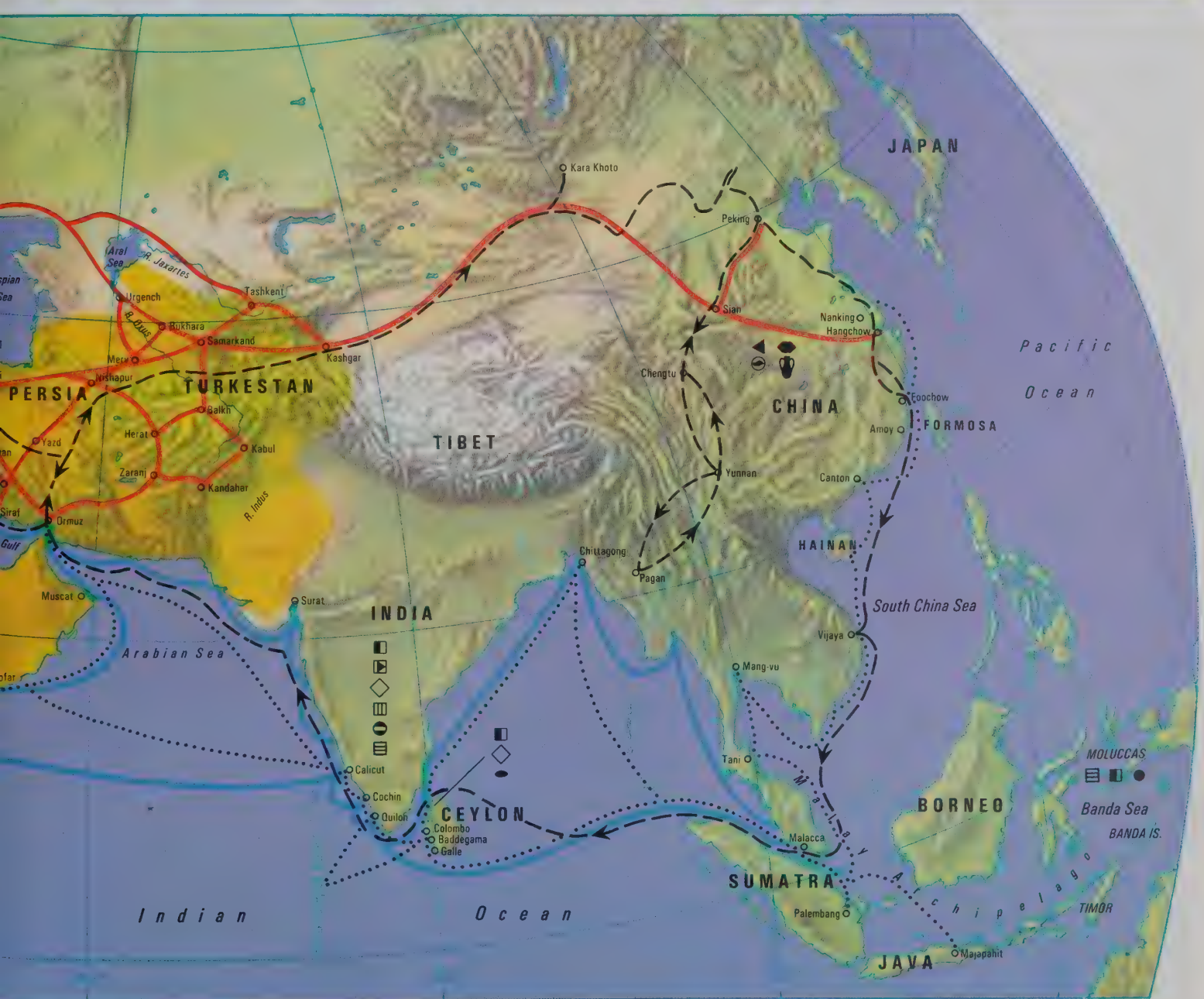
Trading connexions had been remarkably widespread during late antiquity, and they had brought with them important cultural interchanges (page 24). The barbarian invasions, beginning c.300 AD and lasting some 200 years, had disastrous results. The Silk Route from Rome to China was cut, and even within the Roman empire communications broke down. There was a short-lived recrudescence in Carolingian times, involving trade in the North Sea, centred on Dorestad and Quentovic; but it was only after c.1000, with the restoration of relatively stable conditions, that trade picked up. In particular, the Italian cities, already in contact with the Near East (page 36), established connexions with north-west Europe, where the fairs of Champagne were becoming clearing-houses for trade between Italy and the rising industrial centres of Flanders (map 1).

The consolidation of the German empire under the Saxon and Salian dynasties (page 54) gave impetus to trade from west to east, along a line running from the Low Countries via Cologne to Magdeburg, and along the Main valley to Bamberg and Prague. Its control of the Alpine passes, particularly after the opening of the Septimer and St. Gotthard passes during the Hohenstaufen period, stimulated trade with Italy, which contributed to the growing wealth of the south German cities, among them Augsburg, which later became a major commercial and financial centre after the rise of the Fugger merchant family in the fifteenth century. In the north the most important city was Lübeck (founded 1158), the key point controlling trade between the North Sea and the Baltic and the seat of the Hanseatic League, an association of German merchants which took shape in 1259 and was formally constituted in 1358. With its far-flung network of associated cities and its branches in London, Bruges and Bergen, the Hansa dominated the trade of northern Europe in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. It also had connexions with Venice and Genoa, the cities which dominated Mediterranean and Levantine commerce (map 2).

Levantine trade fell into two broad categories: the spice trade, in which Venice predominated, and the silk trade, largely in the hands of Genoa and its merchant colonies in Constantinople and at Kaffa, Tana and Trebizond. The latter profited greatly from the restoration of order and settled government in central Asia by the Mongols (page 46), which allowed a resumption of overland trade, and for a time there was extensive east–west traffic, exemplified by the famous journeys of Marco Polo between 1271 and 1295 (map 3). But the roads opened by the rise of the Mongol empire in the thirteenth century were closed by its decline in the mid-fourteenth century. The important spice trade from Ormuz to the Black Sea was also badly affected; but the trade via the Red Sea and Alexandria to Venice continued without interruption until the Ottoman conquest of Egypt in 1517 (page 48).

Spices were indispensable, easy to handle and highly profitable, and they were the staple of intercontinental trade in this period. Both Europe and China were dependent for supplies on the spice-producing regions of Asia, particularly the Moluccas and the Malay archipelago, and the resultant transactions, largely in the hands of Arab and Indian middlemen, created a complicated network of sea routes, hinging on Malacca, which stretched from the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf to the South China Sea (map 3). In the early fifteenth century, between 1405 and 1433, the Chinese sent seven expeditions through the Strait of Malacca to the Indian Ocean and beyond; but this enterprise ceased abruptly after 1440. Meanwhile, Portugal was probing down the west coast of Africa (page 64) in search of gold; but later, when Genoa, which had lost its eastern markets after the fall of Constantinople in 1453, provided financial backing for the Portuguese ventures, the main objective became the search for an alternative route to the east, to cut out Genoa's rival, Venice. When the Portuguese reached India in 1498, and Columbus, despatched by Portugal's rival, Spain, reached America, a new era had begun. The thousand-year-old pattern, centred on the Mediterranean, gave way to an Atlantic economy (page 82), and the whole economic and political balance in Europe shifted dramatically.

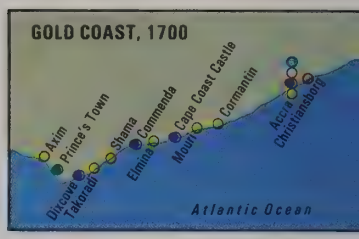
to Trondheim
Bergen
Christiania (Oslo)
Tønsberg
Stockholm
Edinburgh
Newcastle
North Sea
York
Hull
Boston
King's Lynn
Stourbridge
Yarmouth
Ipswich
London
Visby
Reval
Dorpat
Novgorod
Pskov
Baltic Sea
Riga
Skanör
Lübeck
Groningen
Bremen
Hamburg
Kampen
Deventer
Osnabrück
Brunswick
Lüneburg
Wismar
Rostock
Stralsund
Kolberg
Stettin
Stargard
Danzig
Königsberg
Kovno
Elbing
Polotsk
Vitebsk
Smolensk
Mogilev
Magdeburg
Berlin
Frankfurt
Gnesen
Posen
Thorn
Leipzig
Goslar
Dortmund
Soest
Cologne
Antwerp
Damme
Bruges
Turnhout
Lille
St. Denis
Paris
Rouen
Guibray
Erfurt
Friedberg
Frankfurt am Main
Bamberg
Breslau
Prague
Lublin
Lemberg
Cracow
Kiev
Nuremberg
Nördlingen
Augsburg
Linz
Strassburg
Chalon-sur-Saône
Besançon (1535)
Zurzach
St Gotthard Pass
Septimer Pass
Geneva
Lyons
Chambéry
Bozen
Milan
Piacenza
Venice
Genoa
Nice
Marseilles
Beaucaire
Aigues-Mortes
Bordeaux
Villalón
Medina de Rioseco
Guimarães
Medina del Campo
Barcelona
Mediterranean Sea
Corsica
Atlantic Ocean
2 Hanseatic trade
site of important fair
site of lesser fair
Hanseatic trade routes
The Hanseatic League:
Wendish and Pomeranian circle
Saxony, Thuringia, Brandenburg circle
Prussia, Livonia, Sweden circle
Rhine, Westphalia, Netherlands circle
chief city
associated city
kontore
subsidiary kontore
other important city
note: places that are important fairs as well as Hanseatic cities have red symbols

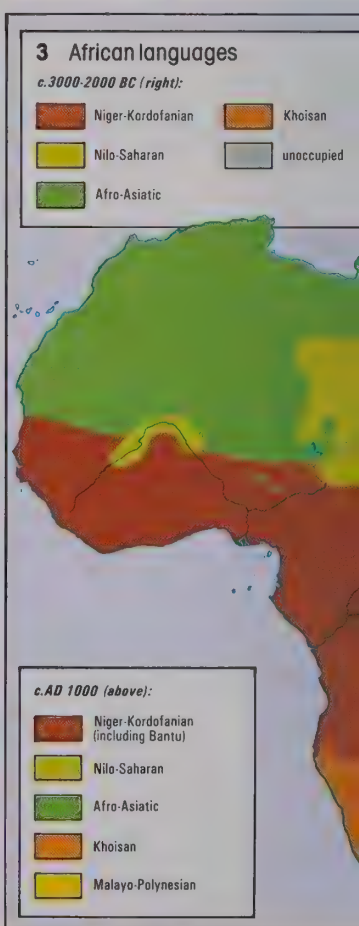

JAPAN
Kara Khoto
Peking
Aral Sea
R. Jaxartes
Urgench
Tashkent
R. Oxus
Bukhara
Samarkand
Merv
Kashgar
Nishapur
PERSIA
TURKESTAN
Balkh
Herat
Yazd
Kabul
Zaranj
Kandahar
R. Indus
Sian
Nanking
Hangchow
Chengtu
CHINA
Pacific Ocean
Foochow
FORMOSA
Amoy
TIBET
Yunnan
Canton
HAINAN
Chittagong
Pagan
Ormuz
Sirat
Gulf
Muscat
Surat
INDIA
South China Sea
Vijaya
Arabian Sea
Mang-yu
Tani
MOLUCCAS
Banda Sea
BANDA IS.
Calicut
Cochin
Quilon
CEYLON
Colombo
Baddegama
Galle
BORNEO
Malacca
SUMATRA
Palembang
TIMOR
Indian Ocean
Archipelago
JAVA
Majapahit

African states and empires, c.900-1800

By the end of the first millennium AD great changes had taken place in Africa. The rise of a culture based on iron-working (page 10) led to a large-scale displacement of Khoisan-speaking Bushmen and Hottentots by settled Bantu-speaking agriculturalists (map 3) and to the appearance of extensive states and empires based on trade. In the south, Zimbabwe, with its monumental stone buildings, exported gold and copper to the Orient via the port of Sofala, and the impressive Kongo state on the west coast had an important trade in ivory. Further north, the Arab conquest of the Maghreb and the rise of the Almoravid and Almohad empires (page 40) marked a watershed. The Arabs, great traders, developed and extended the trans-Saharan caravan routes, and there is no doubt that trade was an important factor in the development of the great empires which arose in the sub-Saharan savanna. The early history of Ghana (some 500 miles north-west of the modern state with the same name) precedes the Islamic era; but its successors, Mali and Songhay, owed much of their wealth and civilisation, described in glowing terms by Arab travellers, to the Islamic impact. So also did the Kanem-Borno empire around Lake Chad and, after the fifteenth century, the city states of Hausaland (map 1). Arab merchant colonies also spread far down the east coast from Mogadishu to Kilwa. The staples of trade in all cases were gold, ivory and slaves. According to a conservative estimate, the trans-Saharan slave trade before the coming of the Europeans amounted to almost 5 million.

The arrival of the Portuguese on the African coast and the building in 1448 of a first European fort and warehouse at Arguin, followed (1482) by a second at Elmina on the Gold Coast, had at first little impact on Africa. The immediate objective was to share directly in the gold trade, hitherto dominated by Muslim middlemen, and the slave trade was a secondary by-product. But with the development of sugar plantations in Brazil (page 68) and later in the West Indies, the slave trade became a major source of profit, particularly after Dutch and British traders ousted the Portuguese. Along the length of the Gold and Slave Coasts, from Axim to the Niger Delta, fortified trading stations (or 'factories') were set up as bases for this trade (map 2, inset), and the Portuguese continued to export slaves further south in Angola. Of some 15 million Africans shipped aboard between 1450 and 1870, some 90 per cent went to South America and the Caribbean, most of them between 1700 and 1800. The effects on Africa of this appalling trade in human beings are not easy to quantify, though the effects on the victims themselves need no description. Furthermore, the loss of population was not evenly divided and some areas suffered disproportionately. Others profited from the trade. After the invasion and destruction of the great Songhay empire by Morocco in 1591, the forest states of Asante, Dahomey and Benin, having direct access to the Atlantic and to European trade, increased in importance and political power (map 2). Elsewhere, however, much of the interior remained unexplored and virtually unknown. In the far south the Dutch were established in the Cape Colony; but, in a continental perspective, its extent was still minimal. In the north-east Islam was spreading; but the Christian kingdom of Ethiopia, despite a serious setback in the 1520s, still held its own. By 1800, with the exception of the Ottomans in the north (and even their power was more nominal than real), Africa remained independent of foreign control. Nevertheless there is little sign that it was ready to meet the European challenge that developed in the nineteenth century (page 102). It was a world unto itself, but in no position to compete with the technological dynamism of the West.





2 Africa, 1500-1800
movement of peoples
spread of Islam
area of Islamic influence by 1800
trade routes
slave trade routes
Spanish offensives against Algiers and Tunis in the 16th century
Moroccan military expeditions
Saladian extension of Moroccan territory c. 1591
Portuguese voyages to Africa and India
areas of Ottoman control
coastal settlements:
Dutch
French
Portuguese
Danish
Ottoman
British
Spanish
Brandenburger
SPAIN
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
Mediterranean Sea
Red Sea
Indian Ocean
Sahara Desert
Central Sudan
Nilotic Sudan
ALGIERS
MOROCCO
EGYPT
SONGHAY
SEGU 18th C
MOSSI STATES 15th C
HAUSA STATES
BORNO
KANEM
WADAI
DARFUR
AIR
FUNJ 16th C
ETHIOPIA 16th C
ADAL
SHOA
BONGU STATES
NUPE
BENIN
OYO 17th C
DAHOMEY 18th C
ASANTE 18th C
NIGER DELTA STATES 18th C
OLD CALABAR
KWARARAFA
TIKAR BAMUM BAMILEKE
AZANDE
BANDA
NZAKARA
NGBANDI
BABWA
MANGBETU
NILOTES
PARANILOTES
GALLA
SOMALI
BUNYORO
BUGANDA
Lake Victoria
ANKOLE
KARAGWE
RWANDA
BURUNDI
MONGO
PYGMY
TEKE
KUBA
TETELA
LULUA
KETE
LUBA 15 th C – 16 th C
Lake Tanganyika
LUANGO
KONGO
CHOKWE
LUNDA 16 th – 17 th C
MBUNDU
LUENA-LOVALE
SANGA
BEMBA
BISA
Lake Nyasa
LAMBA
MARAVI
OVIMBUNDU
OVAMBO
SAAN
LOZI
LENJE
TONGA
MWENEMUTAPA 16th C
BOZWI
Great Zimbabwe
KARANGA
TSWANA
SOTHO
HERERO
KHOISAN
NGUNI
CAPE
KHOISAN
Cape Town
Cape established by Dutch East India Company in 1652. Gradual spread of white settlers inland. Occupied by Britain 1795.
Portuguese slave trade
Cape of Good Hope
MADAGASCAR
HOVA MERINA
Fort-Dauphin
settlements of mainland African slaves
Algiers
Tunis
Tripoli
Cairo
Alexandria
Tangier
Fez
Marrakesh
Sijilmassa
Wargla
Ghadames
Murzuk
Ain Salah
Ghat
Taghaza
Tamanrasset
Timbuktu
Gao
Jenne
Tadmekka
Agades
Bilma
Katsina
Kano
Zaria
Lake Chad
Suakin
Massewa
Gennar
Zeila
Berbera
White Nile
R. Nile
R. Benue
R. Volta
R. Congo
R. Zambezi
R. Orange
Accra
Whydah
Badagri
Lagos
Slave Coast
IBO
Brass
Fernando Po
Principe
São Tomé
see inset above
West Africa - arrival of Portuguese 15thC and 16thC. Dutch, English and French 17thC
Arab trans-Saharan slave trade route
Ottoman conquest 1517
Corsair cities under Ottoman suzerainty 1516
Jerba
Mogadishu
Brava
Lamu
Malindi
Mombasa
Kilwa Kisiwani
Pemba
Zenzibar
Comoro Is
Mozambique
Tete
Quelimane
Sena
Sofala
Delagoa Bay
Benguela
Luanda
Ambriz
Vasco da Gama in India
April 1498
Dec. 1498
Arab slave trade

America on the eve of European conquest

Two great and wealthy civilisations confronted the Spaniards when they arrived in America at the beginning of the sixteenth century: the Aztec empire in Mexico and the Inca empire in Peru. The former had a population of 10–12 millions, the latter 6 millions or possibly considerably more. A few other centres of civilisation existed, such as the Chibcha state in modern Colombia; but the remainder of the continent was sparsely inhabited (perhaps 1 million north of the Rio Grande and 1 million in the rest of South America) and divided among more than a thousand small tribal societies, with distinct, often unrelated languages (map 1). Few regions, particularly in the north, had reached the stage of settled agriculture (map 4).

The Aztec and Inca empires were different in character, but there is no evidence of any contact between them. The Aztecs, like the Toltecs who controlled much of Mexico in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, were raw warriors from the north who entered Mexico during the thirteenth century and settled on islands in Lake Texcoco, where c.1325 they founded the town of Tenochtitlán, which was to become their capital. The Inca empire was created by one of the numerous tribes of Quechua stock inhabiting the central Andes, which established itself in the Cuzco valley in the twelfth century. The expansion of both came late and only reached its full extent on the eve of the Spanish conquest. In the case of the Aztecs (map 2) the first step was to ally with the neighbouring tribes in Texcoco and Tlacopán against their overlords in Azcapotzalco, and then to turn against their allies. This aggressive policy began c.1427 under Itzcoatl and was continued by Montezuma I. It reached its peak under Montezuma II (1502–20), when the Aztecs, in control of the greater part of Mexico, were beginning to enter Maya territory in Yucatán. Inca expansion began under the eighth emperor, Viracocha, and his son Pachacuti (1438–63), whose son Topa subdued the coastal civilisation of Chimú (1470), and then, after his accession as emperor (1471), pushed south into Chile and northern Argentina (map 3). Huayna Capac (1493–1525) advanced north into modern Ecuador, where he founded a second capital at Quito. By now the Inca empire was some 200 miles wide and 2500 miles long, held together by an impressive system of highways and post-stations, with relays of runners who conveyed imperial orders to all parts of the empire.

The Incas created a genuine imperial system, with an hereditary dynasty, a Quechua aristocracy and a highly trained bureaucracy. All land was state-owned, and there was a complex system of irrigation. The ordinary Indian spent nine months of the year working for the state, but in return was protected from famine by large state-owned food repositories and provided for in sickness and old age. The Aztec empire, on the other hand, rather like that of the Mongols in Europe (page 46), was essentially a harsh military dominion over vassal peoples, who were left to rule themselves on condition that they paid heavy tribute to Tenochtitlán in food, textiles, pottery and other goods, but increasingly in human beings for sacrifice to the Aztec gods. The number of sacrificial victims rose from 10,000 a year to 50,000 a year at the time of the Spanish conquest. This was certainly one reason why the Totonacs and Tlaxcalans welcomed the Spanish invaders of Mexico (page 68), and resentment against Inca oppression probably played a similar role in Peru. Neither empire was as stable as it seemed. Nevertheless their collapse at the hands of small bands of adventurers (Cortés had only 600 men, a few small cannon, 13 muskets and 16 horses when he invaded Mexico in 1519, and Pizarro had only 180 men, 27 horses and 2 cannon when he attacked the Inca empire in 1531) is not easily explained.

4 Archaeological sites in North America, from AD 1000

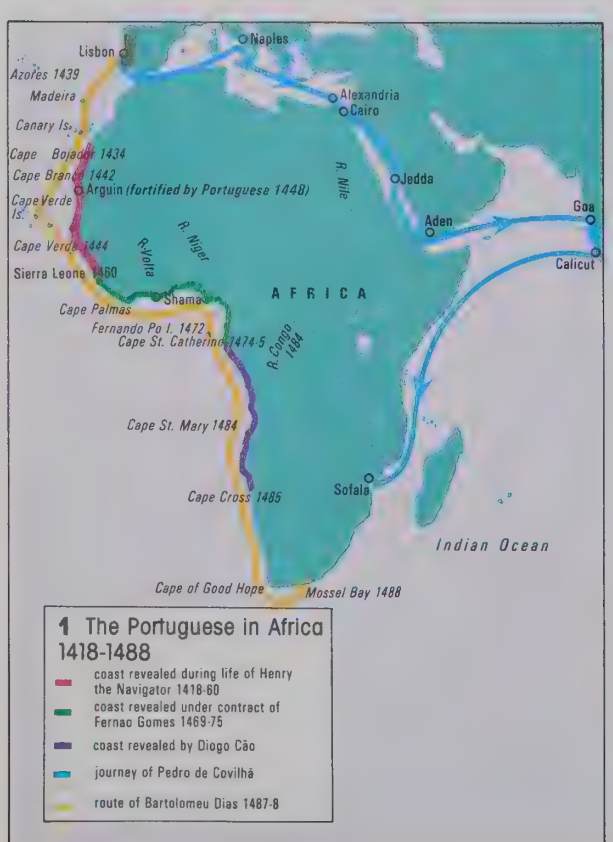
1 The American peoples, c.1500
culture areas:
North America
Arctic
Sub-Arctic
Northwest coast
Plateau
Great Basin
California
Southwest
Great Plains
Northeast
Southeast
Mesoamerica
Mesoamerica
South America
Circum-Caribbean
Savanna-Orinoco
Andean
Tropical forest
Atlantic
Southern
ESKIMO
ALEUT
KOYUKON
KUTCHIN
INGALIK
TANANA
HAN
HARE
TUTCHONE
DOGRIB
KASKA
TLINGIT
TSIMSHIAN
CHIPEWYAN
BEAVER
CARRIERS
HAIDA
KWAKIUTL
NOOTKA
CHINOOK
SHUSWAP
SARCEE
BLACKFOOT
NEZ PERCE
CREE
MONTAGNAIS-NASKAPI
OJIBWA
BEOTHUK
MANDAN
CROW
Rocky Mts.
YUROK
KAROK
MODOC
SHOSHONE
POMO
CHEYENNE
SIOUX
MENOMINEE
OTTAWA
ALGONQUIN
SAUK
POTAWA
TOMI
HURON
IROQUOIS
MICMAC
ABENAKI
FOX
ERIE
SUSQUEHANNA
YOKUTS
PAIUTE
UTE
ARAPAHO
PAWNEE
ILLINOIS
MIAMI
MASSACHUSET
NARRAGANSET
CHUMASH
KIOWA
OSAGE
SHAWNEE
DELAWARE
MOHAVE
NAVAJO
HOPI
WICHITA
POWHATAN
PAPAGO
APACHE
COMANCHE
CADDO
CHICKASAW
CHEROKEE
CATAWBA
PIMA
COCHIMI
TARAHUMARA
NATCHEZ
CHOCTAW
CREEK
TEPEHUAN
COAHUILTEC
TIMUCUA
HUICHOL
CALUSA
CORA
HUASTEC
OTOMÍ
TARASCO
TOTONAC
NAHUATL
MIXTEC
ZAPOTEC
MAYA
CIBONEY
ISLAND ARAWAK
LENCA
PAYA
CIBONEY
MISKITO
ISLAND CARIB
NICARAO
Caribbean Sea
Atlantic Ocean
Pacific Ocean
GUAYMÍ
CUNA
GOAJIRO
WARRAU
CHOCÓ
CHIBCHA
GUAHIBO
PAEZ
TUCANO
MACÚ
WAIWAI
TRIO
CARIB
RAWAK
TUMBEZ
CHIMÚ
JÍVARO
WITOTO
YAGUA
OMAGUA
R. Amazon
MUCHIC
SHIPIBO
CAWAHIB
MUNDURUCÚ
TEREMEMBÉ
TENETEHARA
PIRO
TIMBIRA
CAMPA
CAYAPÓ
SHAVANTE
NAMBICUARA
QUECHUA
MAZCA
AYMARÁ
CARAJÁ
MOJOS
BORORÓ
TUPINAMBÁ
ATACAMA
SIRIONÓ
GUATÓ
DIAGUITA
MATACO
CAIGUÁ
Chaco
BOTOCUDO
GUARANÍ
TUPINAMBA
ABIPON
KAINGANG
ARAUCANIAN
Andes
PUELCHE
CHARRÚA
TEHUELCHE
ALACALUF
YAHGAN
ONA
Quito
Cuenca
R. Japurá
R. Amazon
R. Marañón
R. Ucayali
R. Purus
R. Mamoré
Cajamarca
Huánuco
Bombón
Vilcashuamán
Machu Picchu
Ollantaytambo
Cuzco
Tiahuanaco
Lake Titicaca
Lake Poopó
Limatambo
Pachacamac
Incahuási
CHIMÚ
Andes
INCA
Pacific Ocean
R. Maule
R. Salado
3 The Inca Empire in Peru
growth of the Inca Empire:
under Pachacuti 1438-63
growth under Pachacuti and Topa Inca 1463-71
growth under Topa Inca 1471-93
growth under Huayna Capac 1493-1525
imperial roads

European voyages of discovery
1487-1780

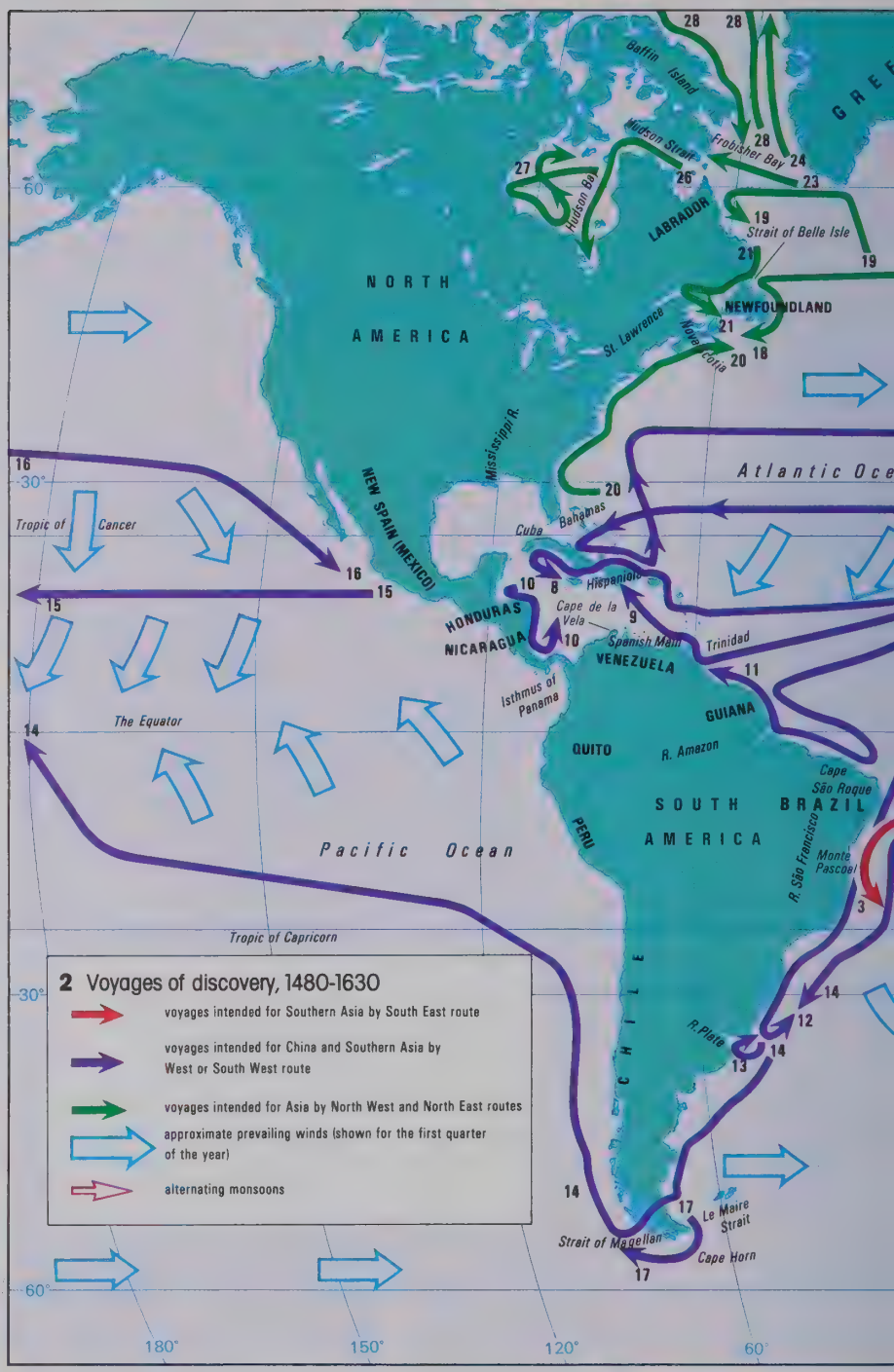
The European voyages of discovery opened a new era in world history. They began early in the fifteenth century when Portuguese navigators advanced southward, round the coast of Africa, in search of gold, slaves and spices, until in 1487 Dias and de Covilhã, brought them into the Indian Ocean (map 1). Thenceforth voyages of exploration multiplied, particularly after the resurgence of Islam made the old route to the east via Alexandria and the Red Sea precarious.

While the Portuguese explored the eastern route to Asia, the Spaniards sailed west. Once in the Indian Ocean the former quickly reached their goal: Malabar (1498), Malacca (1511), and the Moluccas (1512). The Spanish search for a western route to the Spice Islands was less successful. Its unintended but momentous result was Columbus' discovery of the New World in 1492 (map 2), followed by the Spanish conquest of America (page 68). But it was not until after 1524, when Verrazzano traced the coastline of North America as far north as Nova Scotia, that the existence of a new continent was generally accepted, and meanwhile the search for a western route to Asia continued, leading to extensive exploration of the Caribbean (map 3). Finally, in 1521, Magellan rounded South America, entered the Pacific, and reached the Philippines, but the route was too long and hazardous for commercial purposes. In 1557 the Portuguese occupied Macao, and after 1564 Spanish galleons traded between Manila and Acapulco in Mexico; but otherwise the exploration of the Pacific was delayed until the eighteenth century (map 4). This was the work of British, Dutch and Russians seeking a navigable passage via the Arctic between the Atlantic and the Pacific, and hoping also to locate a hypothetical southern continent. Both proved illusory; but the result was the charting of New Zealand and the eastern coast of Australia, both in a few years opened to European colonisation (page 112).

Meanwhile England and France, unwilling to recognise the monopoly claimed by Spain and Portugal in the Treaty of Tordesillas (1494), had embarked on a series of voyages intended to reach Asia by a northern route (map 2). All these proved abortive and were abandoned after 1632, but they resulted in the opening of North America to European settlement. The English, French and Dutch were also unwilling to abandon the profitable trade with South and South-East Asia to the Portuguese and Spaniards, and the later years of the sixteenth and first half of the seventeenth centuries saw a determined and ultimately successful effort to breach their privileged position (page 66). After 1500 direct sea contact was established between continents and regions which hitherto had gone their own way in isolation. It was necessarily a slow process, and for long the European footholds in Asia and Africa remained tenuous and precarious. But by the time of the death of the last great explorer, James Cook, in 1779, the worldwide network of relationships had been formed which characterises the modern era and differentiates it from all preceding times.

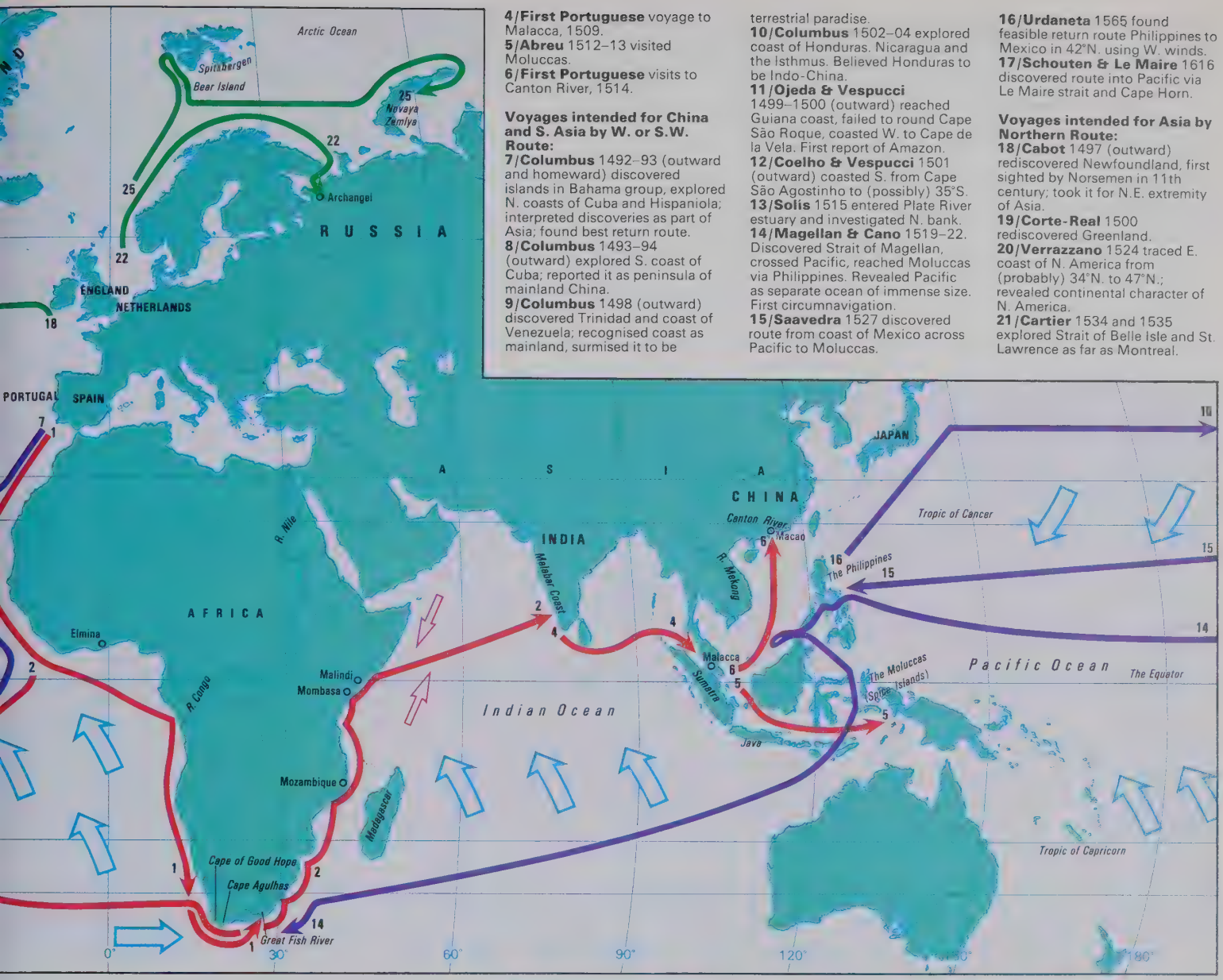


Voyages intended for S. Asia by S.E. Route:
1/Dias 1487/88 (outward) discovered open water S. of Cape Agulhas; entered Indian Ocean; reached Great Fish River.
2/Vasco da Gama 1487–99 (outward) discovered best use of Atlantic winds on way to Cape of Good Hope; reached India, navigated by local pilot.
3/Cabral 1500 (outward) the second Portuguese voyage to India, sighted coast of Brazil at Monte Pascoal, probably accidenta



Voyages in the Caribbean:
29/Bastidas & La Cosa 1501–02 explored coast from Gulf of Maracaibo to Gulf of Urabá.
30/Pinzón & Solis 1508 sent from Spain to find strait to Asia, coasted E. coast of Yucatán.
31/Ponce de León 1512–13 sailed from Puerto Rico, explored coast of Florida from N. of Cape Canaveral to (possibly) Pensacola. May have sighted Yucatán on return. First explorer to note force of Gulf Stream.
32/Hernández de Córdoba 1516 sailed from Cuba, explored N. and W. coasts of Yucatán. First report of Mayan cities.
33/Grijalva 1517 followed S. and W. coasts of Gulf of Mexico as far as Pánuco River.
34/Pineda 1519 explored N. and W. coasts of Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Pánuco River. Finally ended hope of strait to Pacific in that region.

Voyages in the Pacific:
35/Roggeveen 1721–22 discovered Easter Island and some of the Samoan group. Circumnavigation.
36/Bering 1728 sailed from Kamchatka, discovered strait separating N.E. Asia from N.W. America.
37/Wallis 1766–68 discovered Society Islands (Tahiti), encouraged hope of habitable southern continent. Circumnavigation.
38/Cook 1768–71 charted coasts of New Zealand, explored E. coast of Australia, confirmed existence of Torres Strait. Circumnavigation.
39/Cook 1772–75 made circuit of southern oceans in high latitude, charted New Hebrides, ended hope of habitable southern continent. Circumnavigation.
40/Cook & Clerke 1776–80 discovered Sandwich Islands (Hawaii), explored coast of N. America from Vancouver to Unimak Pass, sailed through Bering Strait to edge of pack ice, ended hope of passage through Arctic to Atlantic.



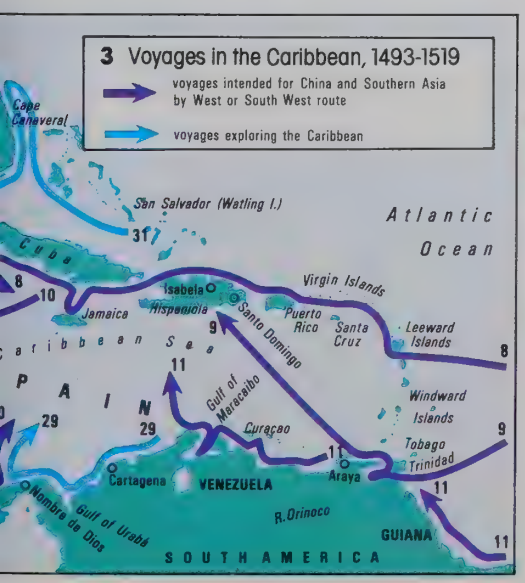
4/First Portuguese voyage to Malacca, 1509.
5/Abreu 1512–13 visited Moluccas.
6/First Portuguese visits to Canton River, 1514.

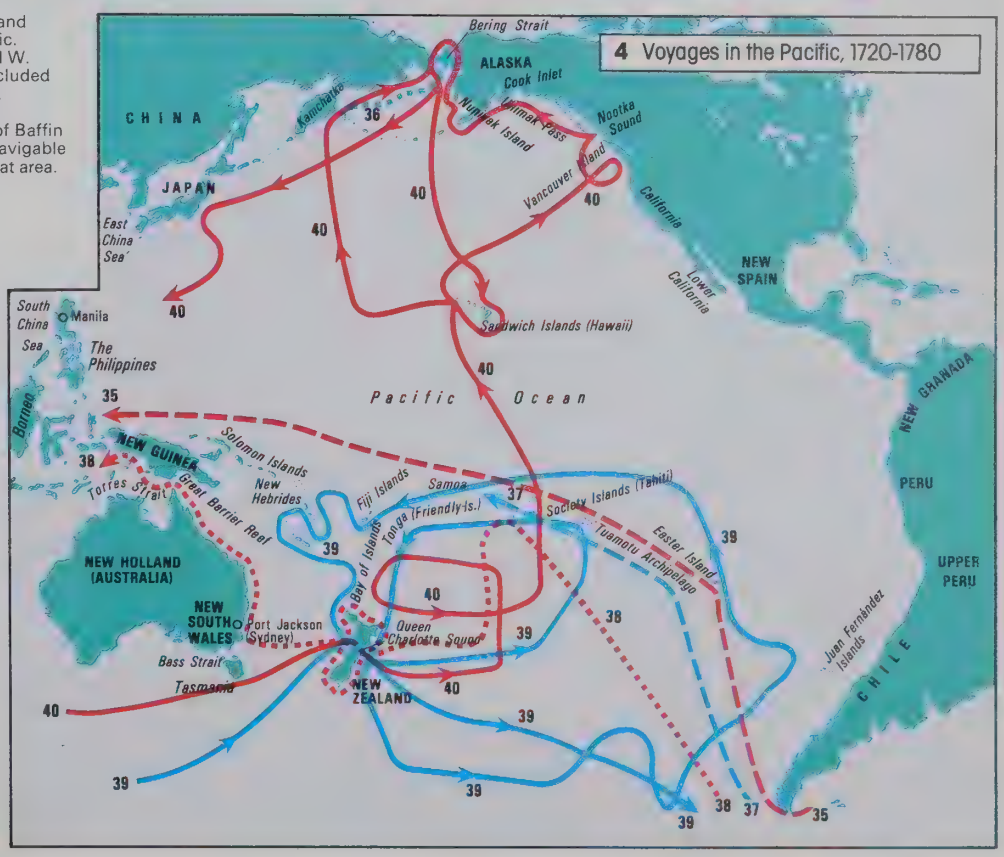
Voyages intended for China and S. Asia by W. or S.W. Route:
7/Columbus 1492–93 (outward and homeward) discovered islands in Bahama group, explored N. coasts of Cuba and Hispaniola; interpreted discoveries as part of Asia; found best return route.
8/Columbus 1493–94 (outward) explored S. coast of Cuba; reported it as peninsula of mainland China.
9/Columbus 1498 (outward) discovered Trinidad and coast of Venezuela; recognised coast as mainland, surmised it to be terrestrial paradise.
10/Columbus 1502–04 explored coast of Honduras. Nicaragua and the Isthmus. Believed Honduras to be Indo-China.
11/Ojeda & Vespucci 1499–1500 (outward) reached Guiana coast, failed to round Cape São Roque, coasted W. to Cape de la Vela. First report of Amazon.
12/Coelho & Vespucci 1501 (outward) coasted S. from Cape São Agostinho to (possibly) 35°S.
13/Solis 1515 entered Plate River estuary and investigated N. bank.
14/Magellan & Cano 1519–22. Discovered Strait of Magellan, crossed Pacific, reached Moluccas via Philippines. Revealed Pacific as separate ocean of immense size. First circumnavigation.
15/Saavedra 1527 discovered route from coast of Mexico across Pacific to Moluccas.

16/Urdaneta 1565 found feasible return route Philippines to Mexico in 42°N. using W. winds.
17/Schouten & Le Maire 1616 discovered route into Pacific via Le Maire strait and Cape Horn.

Voyages intended for Asia by Northern Route:
18/Cabot 1497 (outward) rediscovered Newfoundland, first sighted by Norsemen in 11th century; took it for N.E. extremity of Asia.
19/Corte-Real 1500 rediscovered Greenland.
20/Verrazzano 1524 traced E. coast of N. America from (probably) 34°N. to 47°N.; revealed continental character of N. America.
21/Cartier 1534 and 1535 explored Strait of Belle Isle and St. Lawrence as far as Montreal.

22/Willoughby & Chancellor 1553 rounded North Cape and reached Archangel.
23/Frobisher 1574 reached Frobisher Bay in Baffin Island, which he took for a 'strait'.
24/Davis 1587 explored W. coast of Greenland to the edge of the ice in 72°N.
25/Barents 1596–97 discovered Bear Island and Spitsbergen and wintered in Novaya Zemlya.
26/Hudson 1610 sailed through Hudson Strait to the S. extremity of Hudson Bay, which he and others took to be the Pacific.
27/Button 1612 explored W. coast of Hudson Bay, concluded Bay land-locked on the W.
28/Baffin & Bylot 1616 explored whole coastline of Baffin Bay and decided that no navigable N.W. passage existed in that area.

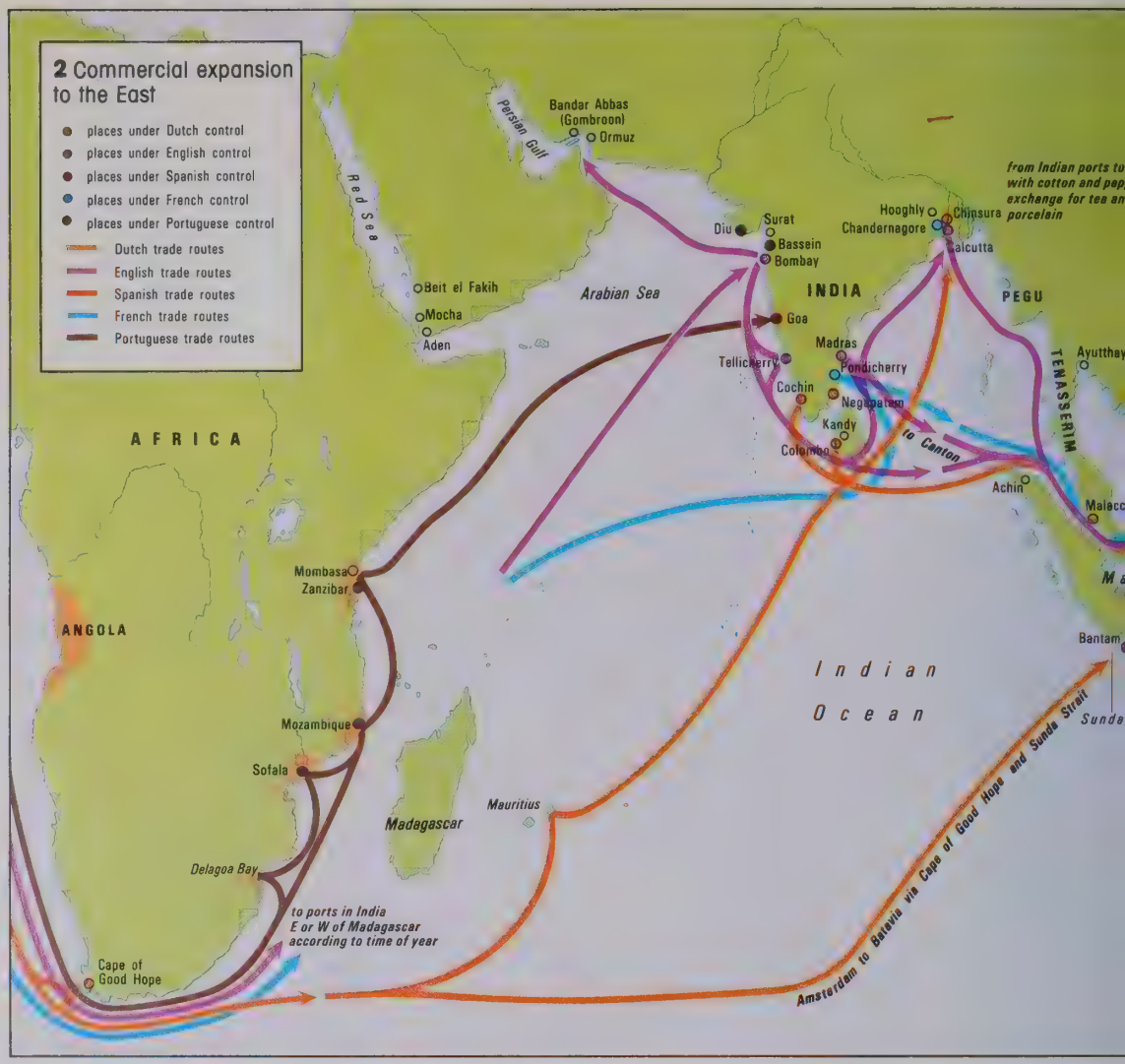


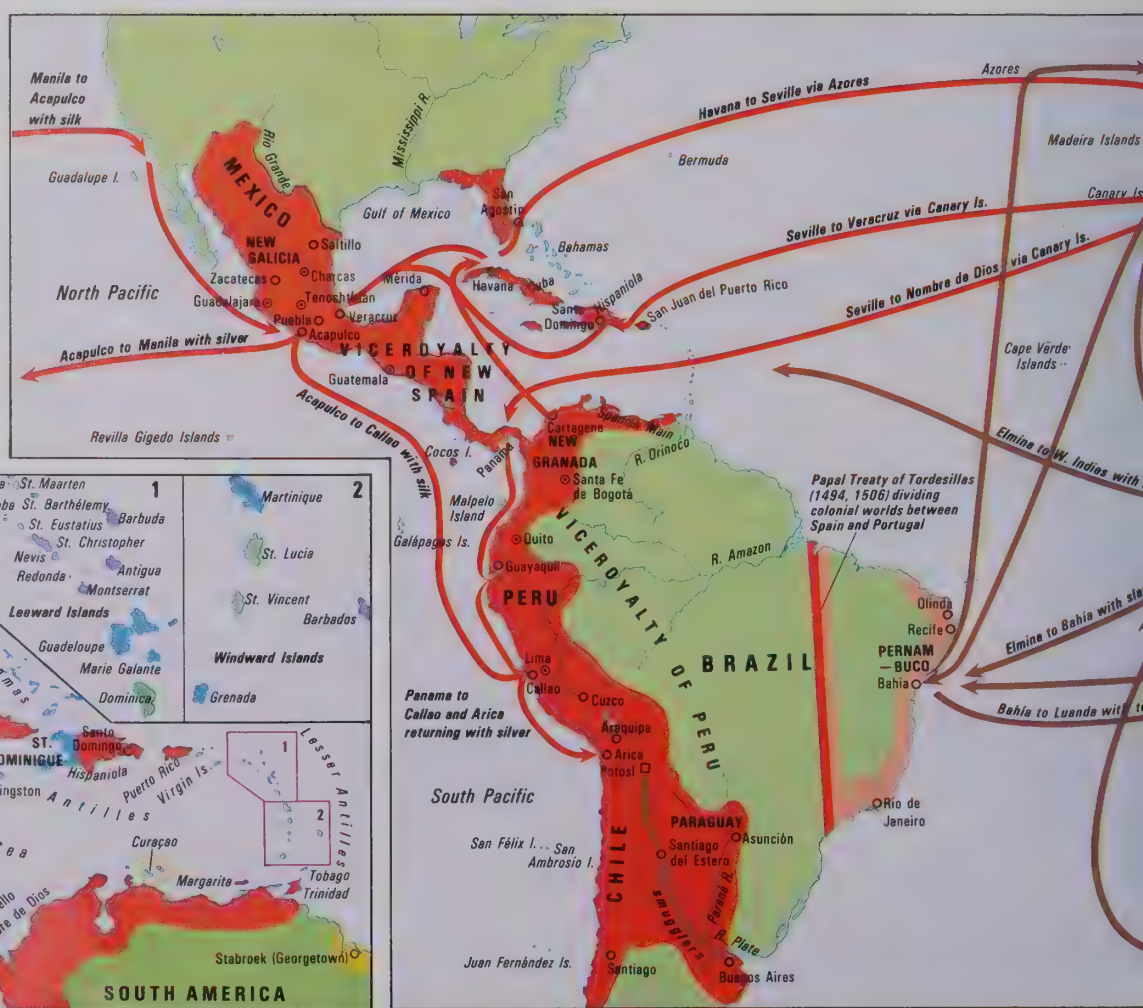


European expansion overseas, 1493-1713

The Portuguese were the first to exploit the European voyages of discovery. Theirs was essentially a trading empire, and by the middle of the sixteenth century they had more than fifty forts and factories reaching from Sofala on the Zambezi to Nagasaki in Japan (map 1). In 1557 they occupied Macao on the Chinese mainland. The Spaniards, on the other hand, set out on a deliberate policy of conquest and settlement, first in Hispaniola and, a decade or so later, in Mexico and Peru. The result was the foundation of the great Spanish colonial empire (page 68). But the Iberian preponderance did not go unchallenged. Particularly after the foundation of the English and Dutch East India Companies, in 1600 and 1602 respectively, Portuguese trade came under attack (map 2). With the acquisition of Batavia (1619) as an eastern headquarters and of the Cape of Good Hope (1652) as a station on the route to the east, Dutch commercial pre-eminence was assured.

While there was no direct attack on Spain's mainland empire the islands of the Caribbean, coveted as a prime source of sugar for the European market, became an object of intense rivalry and competition, in which all the leading powers engaged (map 4). Furthermore, whatever Spanish pretensions may have been, it was unable to make its presence felt much north of the Rio Grande. There was a slow advance in the west into California; but on the east coast Spanish power was limited to a tenuous foothold in Florida. Here the states of northern Europe, led by England and France, took the lead. France, in particular, advancing down the St. Lawrence estuary, penetrated deep into the interior, exploring the whole Mississippi valley (1682) and establishing fortified posts all the way to the Gulf of Mexico (map 3). The English, on the other hand, established a series of settlements along the eastern coast, beginning with Virginia in 1607. The clash of commercial and colonial interests which ensued ushered in the first age of imperial rivalry and conflict (page 86). Its prelude was the Anglo-Dutch wars of 1652–73 (page 80) which resulted in the British seizure (1664) of the Dutch settlement of New Amsterdam, subsequently renamed New York. It marked the decline of the Netherlands and the rise of England and France to the paramount position in the overseas world.





BRITISH TERRITORIES

Carolina Settled from 1663; separated into two colonies 1713.
Connecticut Settled 1635–38; separately incorporated 1662.
Delaware Settled by Swedes from 1638; separate proprietary colony 1704.
Maine Settled from 1622; effectively part of Massachusetts Bay from 1651, formally annexed 1691.
Maryland Settled as proprietary colony from 1632.
Massachusetts Bay Settled 1629 by Massachusetts Bay Co.
Newfoundland Claimed for England by John Cabot 1497; British sovereignty recognised 1713.
New Hampshire Part of Maine 1622; separate province from 1698.
New York Settled as New Netherland from 1623. Seized by English 1664.
Nova Scotia Settled by French (as Acadia) 1604; ceded to English 1713.
New Jersey Part of New Netherland; English proprietary colony 1664.
Pennsylvania Settled as proprietary colony from 1681.
Rhode Island Settled by dissident groups from Massachusetts Bay from 1636; separately incorporated from 1644.
Rupert's Land Fur trading area claimed by Hudson Bay Co. from 1670; claim recognised by France 1713.
Virginia Settled by Virginia Company from 1607; crown colony from 1624.

FRENCH TERRITORIES

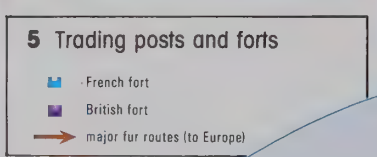
New France Settled from c.1608.
Louisiana After exploration of Mississippi by La Salle (1682), France claimed whole Mississippi drainage. Fortified trading posts established at strategic points from Great Lakes to Gulf of Mexico.

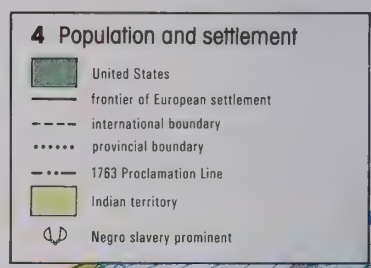
Colonial America
1519-1783

The conquest of Mexico by Hernán Cortés in 1519–20 (map 1), and of Peru by Francisco Pizarro in 1531–33 (map 2), laid the foundations of the Spanish colonial empire in America. With the help of rebellious tribes, oppressed by their Aztec and Inca conquerors (page 62), both were amazingly successful. By 1535, when vice-regal government was set up in Mexico and Lima was founded as the capital of Peru, the first dramatic phase of conquest was over. By 1550 all the chief centres of settled population were in Spanish hands, though the task of pushing forward frontiers into unexplored territory continued until the end of the colonial period (map 3). New vice-royalties were set up in New Granada (1739) and Rio de la Plata (1776), and new military governments in Texas (1718) and California (1767). But none of the later, sparsely inhabited conquests compared with Mexico and Peru in wealth and importance. Potosí in Upper Peru and Guanajuato in Mexico became the biggest sources of silver in the world, and by 1560 silver was the chief export from the American colonies to Spain.

Elsewhere on the American mainland colonisation was slower to take effect. The Portuguese, on the eastern coast of South America, were only goaded into action by fear of the French. But in 1549 they founded Bahía as an administrative capital, and sugar plantations and mills, worked by slaves from Africa, were introduced. Between 1575 and 1600 coastal Brazil became the foremost sugar-producing territory in the western world, and attracted many land-hungry immigrants from Portugal and the Azores. But the vast Brazilian interior remained largely unexplored and in the hands of native Indian tribes (map 4). The same was true of the whole of North America at this date, beyond the frontier of New Spain. With its harsh climate and poor soil, the eastern seaboard of North America was uninviting territory, and for the first century after its discovery the great Newfoundland fisheries were its main attraction. There was also a fur trade with the natives, and by 1535 French explorers had penetrated far up the St. Lawrence river in the quest of skins and furs. When, after 1670, the English also built up a fur-trading empire, based on Hudson Bay (map 5), the result was a rivalry which erupted in the colonial wars of the eighteenth century (page 86). Nevertheless, fish and furs were the original staple of North America, and settlement, strongly opposed by fishing interests, only began in the seventeenth century, with the foundation of Acadia, or Nova Scotia, by the French in 1604, of Virginia (1607) and Massachusetts Bay (1629) by the English, and of New Netherland, later New York, by the Dutch in 1623. Even so, progress was slow. As late as the end of the seventeenth century, the total population of the twelve English colonies was a mere 250,000.

The pattern of settlement was also different in the north. The English colonists wanted land for farms and plantations, expelling or exterminating the native population. The history of the British colonies in the eighteenth century is punctuated by savage Indian wars. In Virginia, and later in the Carolinas, where tobacco was introduced as a cash-crop from Guiana, the plantations were worked by Negro slaves, numbering well over 100,000 by the time of the American War of Independence. The Spaniards, on the other hand, relied on Indian labour, both in ranching and mining, and readily intermarried; hence the extensive *mestizo* population, particularly in Mexico and Peru. At the same time, all the colonies were firmly administered in the interests of the mother country. This inevitably provoked resentment on the part of the colonial élites, and lay behind the demand for independence which erupted in the north in 1775 (page 92) and in Latin America in 1808 (page 96).





3 The development of colonial America
French territory
Spanish territory
Portuguese territory
Dutch territory
Russian territory
British by 1763
ceded by France to Britain 1763
ceded by France to Spain 1763
United States 1783
international boundary
provincial boundary
major exports
colonisation routes:
Spanish
Portuguese
British
Russian
French
Arctic Ocean
GREENLAND
unexplored
RUPERT'S LAND (Hudson's Bay Company)
Hudson Bay
disputed by Russia and Spain
furs
NEWFOUNDLAND
ceded to Britain 1763
QUEBEC
St. Lawrence R.
Quebec
Montreal
NOVA SCOTIA
whale products, fish
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA 1783
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Jamestown
THE THIRTEEN COLONIES
naval stores, furs, fish, grain
Ohio R.
Mississippi R.
LOUISIANA
San Francisco
INTERIOR PROVINCES
Los Angeles (1780)
Rio Grande
tobacco, grain
North Atlantic
skins
WEST FLORIDA
New Orleans
EAST FLORIDA (Br. 1763-83)
NEW SPAIN
Gulf of Mexico
BAHAMA ISLANDS (Br. 1783)
sugar, tobacco
WEST INDIES
CUBA
SANTO DOMINGO
silver
Guanajuato
Mexico
JAMAICA (Br. 1655)
SAINT-DOMINGUE
GUADELOUPE (Fr.)
MARTINIQUE (Fr.)
Caribbean Sea
Belize (Br. 1683)
silver
CENTRAL AMERICA
CURAÇAO (Dutch 1634)
cochineal, gold
gold
Caracas
VENEZUELA
tobacco, cocoa beans, hides
R. Orinoco
Panama
Paramaribo
Cayenne
GUIANA
Pacific Ocean
Santa Fé de Bogotá
NEW GRANADA
drugs, rare plants
slave trade from Africa
Quito
gold, naval stores
R. Amazon
BRAZIL
dyewoods, sugar, tobacco, cotton
Bahia
Treaty of Tordesillas 1494, 1666
Venezuela
NEW GRANADA
PERU
silver, drugs
Lima
Cuzco
Potosí
UPPER PERU
R. São Francisco
gold, diamonds
R. Paraná
Paraguay R.
Rio de Janeiro
BRAZIL
copper, grain
beef
PERU
RIO DE LA PLATA
CHILE
1776
Buenos Aires
hides, silver
Indian frontier
South Atlantic Ocean
FALKLAND IS.
Spanish American population in 1800
(total 16.9 millions)
Whites 3.3
Indians 7.5
Negros 0.8
Mestizos 5.3
Population of the United States and Canada, 1820
(total 11.6 millions)
Whites 9.0
Mulattos 0.1
Negroes 1.9
Indians 0.6

South-East Asia, 1511-1826

When European traders and adventurers broke through into the Indian Ocean at the close of the fifteenth century (page 64), the great prize, drawing them forward, was the spices of South-East Asia. Here was untold wealth to be tapped. But here also, at one of the world's main crossroads, where cultural influences from China and India intermingled, they found themselves in a region of great complexity, divided in religion between Buddhism, Hinduism and Islam, and politically fragmented and unstable (map 1). On the mainland, rival peoples and dynasties competed for hegemony. In the Malayan archipelago the empires of Srivijaya and Majapahit (page 50) had disappeared, leaving behind scores of petty states, with little cohesion. This was the situation when Albuquerque conquered the great international emporium of Malacca for the king of Portugal in 1511.

The Portuguese presence changed little at first. Albuquerque and his successors were there to dominate the spice trade through a chain of fortified trading-stations, linked by naval power. Provided this was accepted, they had no wish to interfere with the native potentates. Far more important, after the arrival on the scene of the Dutch and English (page 66), was the challenge to their trading monopoly by their European rivals. For most of the seventeenth century this rivalry was the dominant factor (map 3). The Dutch, in particular, began a systematic conquest of the Portuguese settlements, capturing Malacca in 1641, and then turned against the British. But in doing so, they were inevitably drawn into local politics. After establishing a base at Batavia in 1619, they interfered in succession disputes among the neighbouring sultans, to ensure their own position, and in this way gradually extended control over Java, expelling the British from Bantam in 1682 (map 4). Already earlier they had driven them out of the Spice Islands by the 'massacre of Amboina' (1623) and the seizure of Macassar (1667), in this way forcing the English East India Company to turn instead to the China trade. With this in view the British acquired Penang on the west coast of Malaya in 1786, the first step in a process which was ultimately to make them masters of the Malay peninsula.

But this was still exceptional. European activities encroached on the out-lying islands, but had little impact on the mainland monarchies, which had no direct interest in European trade and were mainly concerned with extending their power at the expense of their neighbours. This is a complicated story, because all the main centres were also under pressure from the hill peoples of the interior, always waiting to assert their independence; but the main lines of development are indicated on map 2. They include the advance of Annam at the expense of Cambodia, the rise of a new Burmese empire under Alaungpaya (1735–60), after a Mon rebellion in 1740, and successful Siamese resistance to Burmese encroachment, in spite of Burmese conquest in 1767. These events occurred for the most part without European involvement, but during the struggle for empire between England and France in the eighteenth century (page 86) some states were implicated. Already under Louis XIV France had intervened in Siam against the Dutch. During the Anglo-French war in India after 1746 it supported the Mon rebellion in Burma, and in reply the English East India Company seized the island of Negrais at the mouth of the Bassein river. Later, when the Burmese, foiled in their attempt to conquer Siam, switched their efforts to the north, the British, fearing for the security of Bengal, again intervened. The result was the first Anglo-Burmese war (1824–26) and the British annexation of Assam, Arakan and Tenasserim.

In Malaya there was similar encroachment on the independent rulers when the British, after acquiring Penang in 1786, established Singapore in 1819 as a free trade port after its acquisition by Raffles. This led to a conflict of interests with Holland which was only settled by the Anglo-Dutch treaty of 1824 when the British withdrew from Sumatra in return for Dutch withdrawal from Malacca (map 5). The future Dutch and British colonial empires in South-East Asia were taking shape. But their control was still loose and indirect. Only after the Industrial Revolution in Europe, and the expanding demand for raw materials and markets, were the lives and fortunes of the peoples of the region seriously affected.

Java Sea
Indian Ocean
Bantam
Batavia
1684-1809
BANTAM
1619
PREANGER DISTRICTS
1677
CHERIBON
1679-1813
Cheribon
Pekalongan
Japara
Rembang
Demak
Tuban
Semarang
N.E. COASTAL DISTRICTS
1743
MANCHANAGARA
SURA-KARTA
1830
Madiun
Kediri
JOGJAKARTA
Gresik
Surabaya
MADURA I.
1705-1743
Sampang
Pasuruan
Malang
BALAMBANGAN
1777
4 Dutch expansion in Java
1619 – date of Dutch control
Dutch expansion

5 The Malay states in 1826
Malay states tributary to Siam in 1826
British possessions
SIAM
PERLIS
KEDAH
PENANG
PERAK
KELANTAN
TRENGGANU
Straits of Malacca
PAHANG
South China Sea
SELANGOR
NEGRI SEMBILAN
MALACCA
JOHORE
SUMATRA
SINGAPORE

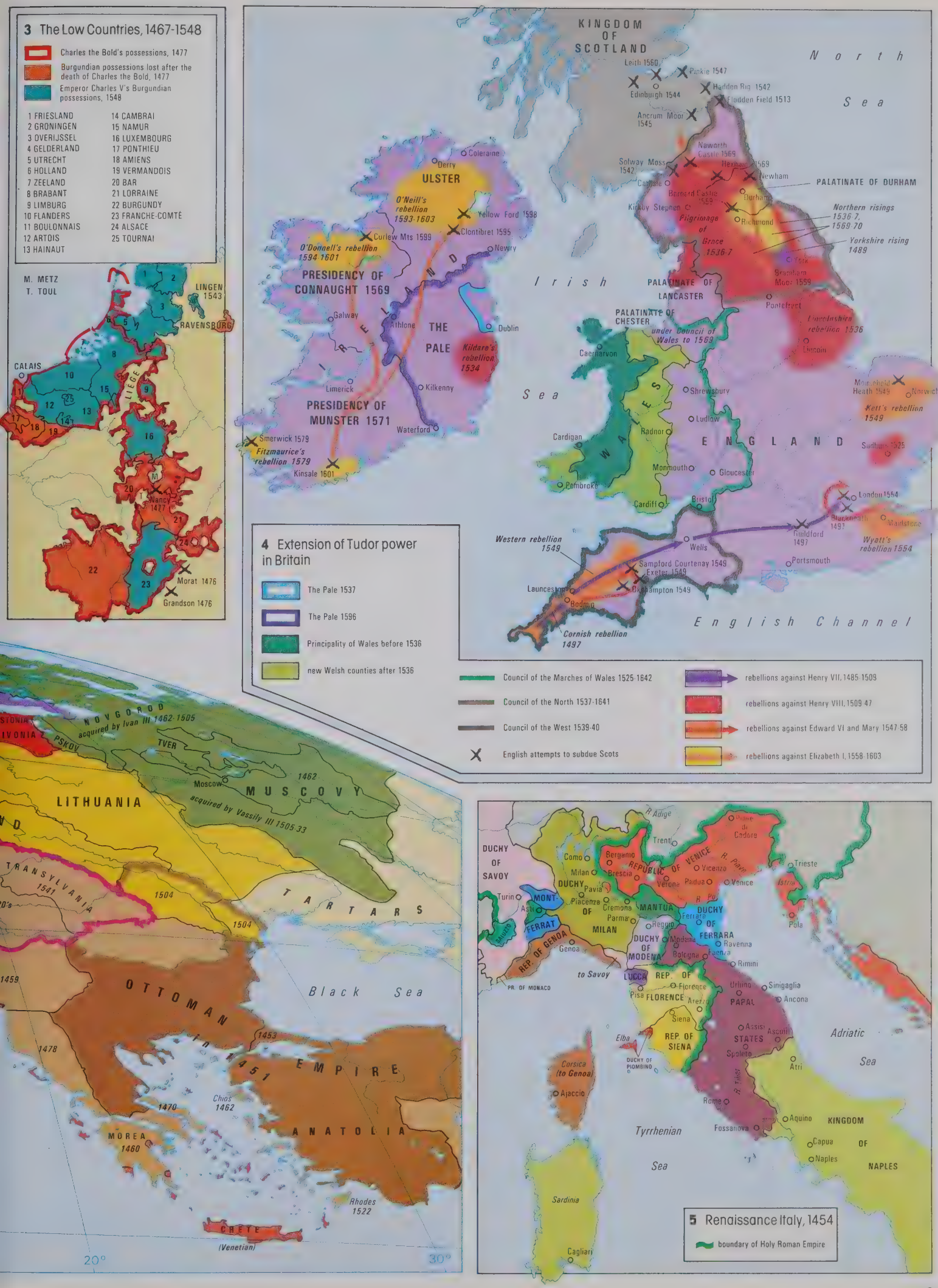
2 Trade and politics
principal trading centre
Vietnamese border in 1500
expansion to 1611
further acquisitions from Cambodia in early 18th century
Vietnamese expansion in 19th century
Kingdom of Luang Prabang 1707
area which broke away under Vientiane in 1707
major Burmese conquests
Siamese conquests
trade routes:
routes developed by Dutch and English East India Companies
routes developed by Arab and Gujerati traders
route developed by the Dutch in the 17th century
routes used by English shipping after 1786
route used by the 'Manila Galleon'
local trade routes
CHINA
ASSAM
MANIPUR
Imphal
Naga Hills
Mogaung
Myitkina
YUNNAN
Bhamo
Tagaung
BURMA
Chin Hills
Shwebo
Mandalay
Ava
Amarapura
SHAN STATES
Pagan
Myohaung
Minbu
Akyab
Arakan
An Pass
Taungup Pass
Prome
Thayetmyo
Toungoo
Pegu
Rangoon
Bassein
Thaton
Martaban
Syriam
C. Negrais
Moulmein
KAREN STATE
Chiengmai
Lamphun
Lampang
Chiang Rai
Chiang Saen
Luang Prabang
Vientiane
Paksane
Sawankhalok
Sukhothai
Savannakhet
LAOS
ANNAM
TONGKING
Hanoi
Bac Ninh
Haiphong
Thanh Hoa
Ha Tinh
Porte d'Annam
Hue
Tourane
Champassak
SIAM
Lop Buri
Korat
Ayutthaya
Sisophon
Angkor
Siem Reap
Stung Treng
Bangkok
Mongkol Borey
Battambang
Chanthaburi
Kompong Thom
CAMBODIA
Kratie
Kompong Cham
Binh Oinh
Qui Nhon
Nha Trang
COCHIN CHINA
Phnom Penh
Chau Doc
R. Mekong
Kampot
Ha Tien
Bien Hoa
Saigon
Cho Lon
Gulf of Siam
Isthmus of Kra
Mergui Archipelago
Andaman Is.
TENASSERIM
Nakhon Si Thammarat
Trang
Phuket
Songkhla
Pattani
Penang
MALAYA
Straits of Malacca
Malacca
(Portuguese Malacca 1511-1641)
Singapore
Tavoy
Thon Buri
Canton
Macao
to Japan
from Canton to all major S.E. Asian ports
to Acapulco
Luzon
PHILIPPINES
Manila
South China Sea
Sulu Sea
Mindanao
Balambangan
Sulu Archipelago
Brunei
SARAWAK
Borneo
R. Sembas
Pontianak
R. Kapu
Karimata Strait
Billiton
Bangka
Palembang
Benkulen
SUMATRA
R. Rokan
R. Kampar
Tiku
Fort de Kock (Bukit Tinggi)
Padang
Painan
Djambi
to Madras and Calcutta
Java Sea
Bandjarmasin
R. Barito
Strait of Macassar
Celebes
Manado
Halmahera
Tidore
MOLUCCAS
Buru
Ceram
Amboina
Banda Is.
Banda Sea
Macassar
Sukadana
Sunda Strait
Batavia (Jakarta)
Bantam
MATARAM
Surabaya
Jogjakarta
Java
Bali
Lombok
Sumbawa
Flores
Timor
Sumba
Indian Ocean
European possessions in 1826:
British
Dutch
Spanish
Portuguese

New monarchy in Europe, 1453-1547

In Europe revival after the setbacks of the fourteenth century (page 56) began around 1450. The whole continent was affected. In the east Ivan III (1462–1505) profited from the decline of the Mongol khanates (page 46) to inaugurate a rapid expansion of the territory of Muscovy (page 84) and to attack the independence of Tver, Novgorod and the landowning aristocracy. In the west endemic civil war in Spain was ended after the union of Castile and Aragon in 1479. The ending of the Hundred Years' War between England and France (1453) and the expulsion of the English from French territory saw a rapid extension of the area controlled by the French monarchy (map 2), while in England Edward IV (1461–83) began a restoration of royal power which was carried further by the new Tudor dynasty after 1485. Through the Council in the North with its seat at York, and the Council in the March of Wales, with its seat at Ludlow, the turbulent outlying regions were brought under control, while Wales itself and the palatinates of Chester and Durham were integrated into the parliamentary and judicial systems from 1536 (map 4). But an attempt to integrate Ireland by Poynings' Law (1494) had little effect, and although Henry VIII was proclaimed King of Ireland (1541), English power was effectively limited to the Pale around Dublin. Scotland also resisted successfully.

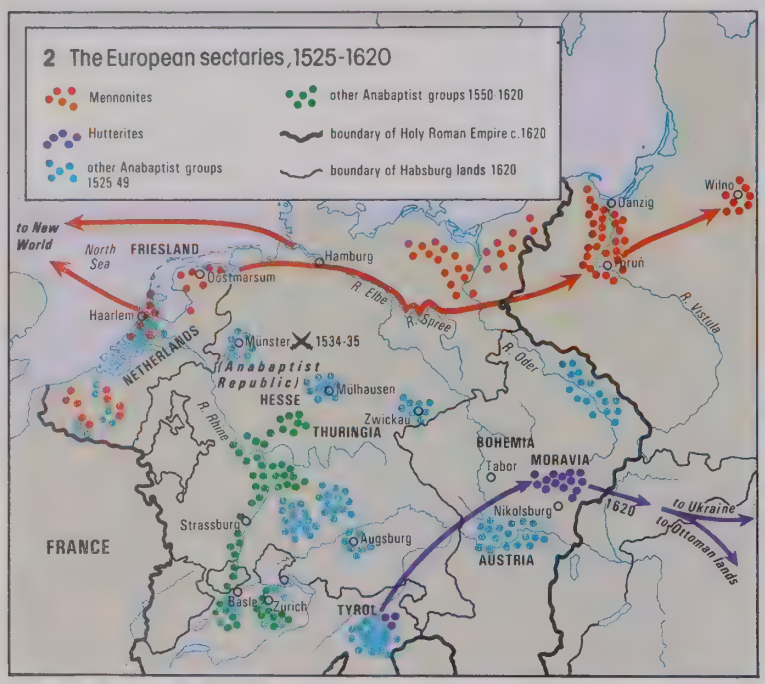
Not all attempts at state-building were a success. The efforts of the dukes of Burgundy to erect an independent state in the rich lands between France and the Empire collapsed when the ambitious Charles the Bold was killed at Nancy in 1477 (map 3). The empire of Matthias Corvinus of Hungary (1458–90) also proved ephemeral. Italy remained divided, in spite of a marked strengthening of government under rulers such as Lorenzo de' Medici (1469–92) at Florence and Ludovico Sforza (1460–99) at Milan (map 5), and after the French invasion of 1494 internal divisions left Italy a prey to foreign intervention. The main legatee in all instances was the house of Habsburg, which succeeded to the Spanish possessions in 1516 and emerged, under Charles V (1519–56) as the preponderant power in western Europe (map 1). But the diversified Habsburg empire lacked cohesion, and when the Ottoman advance, halted on the middle Danube since 1456, was resumed after 1520 (page 48), and at the same time the emperor was involved in the religious wars in Germany (page 74), the strain was too great. In 1556 Charles V abdicated and the empire was divided between the Austrian and Spanish Habsburgs. Only ten years later the Dutch revolt began.

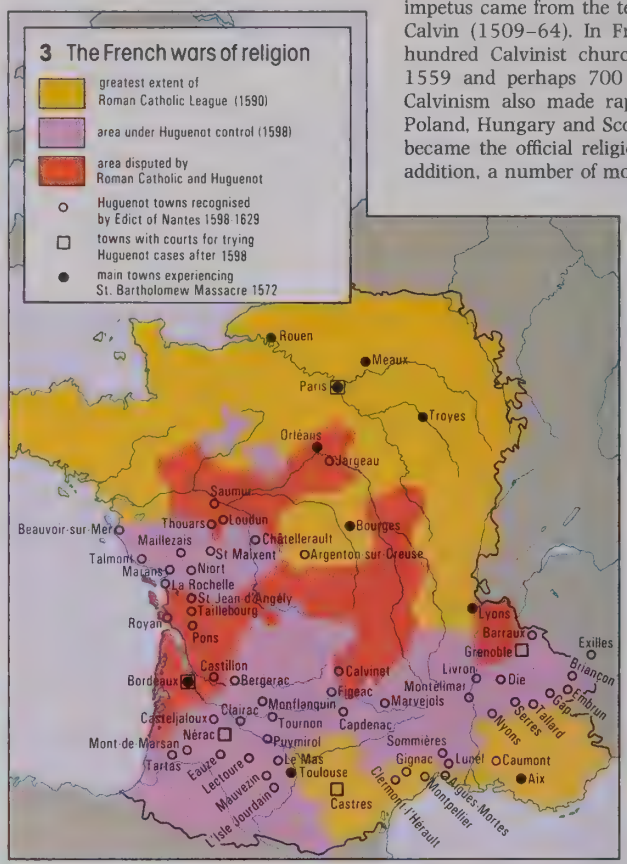
The Dutch revolt, although the most formidable uprising (page 76), was not exceptional. In England, from Henry VII to Elizabeth I, the Tudors were faced by repeated rebellions, and elsewhere, even in Russia, resistance to centralisation became a powerful force after 1550. The rise of the new monarchies was less a new beginning than the culmination of the long struggle of aristocracy and monarchy. Their financial and administrative machinery was not adequate enough to raise a new, modern system of government in place of the old feudal order, and the decisive change from the old to the new was not made until after another century of strife and turmoil.

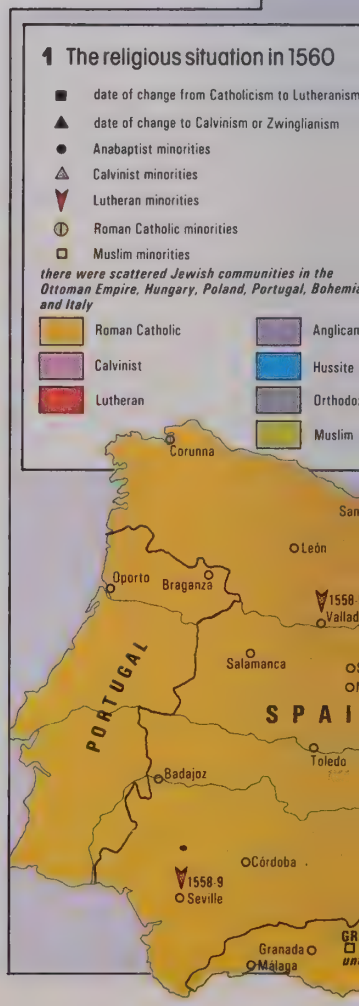

3 The Low Countries, 1467-1548
Charles the Bold's possessions, 1477
Burgundian possessions lost after the death of Charles the Bold, 1477
Emperor Charles V's Burgundian possessions, 1548
1 FRIESLAND
2 GRONINGEN
3 OVERIJSSEL
4 GELDERLAND
5 UTRECHT
6 HOLLAND
7 ZEELAND
8 BRABANT
9 LIMBURG
10 FLANDERS
11 BOULONNAIS
12 ARTOIS
13 HAINAUT
14 CAMBRAI
15 NAMUR
16 LUXEMBOURG
17 PONTHIEU
18 AMIENS
19 VERMANDOIS
20 BAR
21 LORRAINE
22 BURGUNDY
23 FRANCHE-COMTÉ
24 ALSACE
25 TOURNAI
M. METZ
T. TOUL
LINGEN 1543
RAVENSBURG
CALAIS
LIEGE
Nancy 1477
Morat 1476
Grandson 1476
KINGDOM OF SCOTLAND
North Sea
Leith 1560
Edinburgh 1544
Pinkie 1547
Haddon Rig 1542
Flodden Field 1513
Ancrum Moor 1545
Solway Moss 1542
Naworth Castle 1569
Hexham 1569
Newham
Carlisle
Barnard Castle 1569
Durham
PALATINATE OF DURHAM
Kirkby Stephen
Pilgrimage of Grace 1536-7
Richmond
Northern risings 1536-7, 1569-70
Yorkshire rising 1489
Bromham Moor 1489
Pontefract
Lincolnshire rebellion 1536
Lincoln
PALATINATE OF LANCASTER
PALATINATE OF CHESTER
under Council of Wales to 1569
Caernarvon
Shrewsbury
Ludlow
Radnor
Cardigan
Monmouth
Gloucester
Pembroke
Cardiff
Bristol
Mousehold Heath 1549
Norwich
Kett's rebellion 1549
Sudbury 1525
London 1554
Wyatt's rebellion 1554
Maidstone
Guildford 1497
Portsmouth
Wells
Western rebellion 1549
Sampford Courtenay 1549
Exeter 1549
Okehampton 1549
Launceston
Bodmin
Cornish rebellion 1497
English Channel
IRELAND
Derry
Coleraine
ULSTER
O'Neill's rebellion 1593-1603
Yellow Ford 1598
Clontibret 1595
Curlew Mts 1599
O'Donnell's rebellion 1594-1601
Newry
PRESIDENCY OF CONNAUGHT 1569
Galway
Athlone
THE PALE
Kildare's rebellion 1534
Dublin
Limerick
Kilkenny
PRESIDENCY OF MUNSTER 1571
Waterford
Smerwick 1579
Fitzmaurice's rebellion 1579
Kinsale 1601
Irish Sea
4 Extension of Tudor power in Britain
The Pale 1537
The Pale 1596
Principality of Wales before 1536
new Welsh counties after 1536
Council of the Marches of Wales 1525-1642
Council of the North 1537-1641
Council of the West 1539-40
English attempts to subdue Scots
rebellions against Henry VII, 1485-1509
rebellions against Henry VIII, 1509-47
rebellions against Edward VI and Mary 1547-58
rebellions against Elizabeth I, 1558-1603
NOVGOROD acquired by Ivan III 1462-1505
PSKOV
TVER
Moscow
1462
MUSCOVY
acquired by Vassily III 1505-33
LITHUANIA
TRANSYLVANIA
1541
1504
TARTARS
1504
1459
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
1453
1478
1451
1470
Chios 1462
MOREA 1460
ANATOLIA
Black Sea
Rhodes 1522
CRETE (Venetian)
20°
30°
R. Adige
Trent
Piave
Cadore
DUCHY OF SAVOY
Como
Bergamo
Brescia
Milan
REPUBLIC OF VENICE
R. Piave
Vicenza
Trieste
DUCHY OF MILAN
Pavia
Verona
Padua
Venice
Istria
Turin
Asti
MONT-FERRAT
Piacenza
Cremona
Parma
MANTUA
Ferrara
R. Po
DUCHY OF FERRARA
Reggio
Pola
SAVOY
REP. OF GENOA
Genoa
DUCHY OF MODENA
Modena
Ravenna
Bologna
Faenza
Rimini
to Savoy
LUCCA
REP. OF FLORENCE
Florence
Pisa
Arezzo
Urbino
Sinigaglia
PAPAL STATES
Ancona
PR. OF MONACO
Siena
REP. OF SIENA
Assisi
Ascoli
Spoleto
Elba
DUCHY OF PIOMBINO
Adriatic Sea
Corsica (to Genoa)
Ajaccio
R. Tiber
Atri
Rome
Aquino
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
Capua
Naples
Fossanova
Tyrrhenian Sea
Sardinia
Cagliari
5 Renaissance Italy, 1454
boundary of Holy Roman Empire

The Reformation in Europe, 1517-1648

The closing years of the fifteenth century saw a great revival of popular religion in Europe, but the established church, which never fully recovered from the effects of the schism of 1378–1417 (page 56), was ill equipped to satisfy its needs. Except in Bohemia and Moravia, where the Hussites comprised over half the population, and in England, where small groups of Lollards survived, heresy was virtually dead by 1500; but the materialism of the Renaissance popes and the self-seeking of the higher clergy discredited the hierarchy in the eyes of many laymen. Some, like Erasmus of Rotterdam (1466–1536) and Sir Thomas More (1478–1535), still pinned their hopes on spiritual renewal; but elsewhere, particularly in Germany and German-speaking Switzerland, financial and other abuses fired revolt. In 1517 Martin Luther (1483–1546) posted his 95 theses on the church door at Wittenberg. In 1520, under the impulse of Huldreich Zwingli (1484–1531), Zurich r nounced allegiance to Rome. The denunciations of the clergy and th supremacy of the pope and their deman for a return to the standards of ear Christianity exercised a vast appeal. E 1560 (map 1) seven out of ten of th Emperor's subjects were Protestants, an the reformed faith prevailed in Scand navia, Baltic Europe and England. Furth impetus came from the teaching of Joh Calvin (1509–64). In France over on hundred Calvinist churches existed b 1559 and perhaps 700 by 1562, an Calvinism also made rapid progress i Poland, Hungary and Scotland, where became the official religion in 1560. I addition, a number of more radical sec







sprang up. Anabaptists, Mennonites and others (map 2), which rejected theology, ritual and clerical order in favour of Biblical simplicity and often combined evangelism with social protest. They even proclaimed an Anabaptist republic at Münster in 1534, but it was brutally suppressed the next year.

However, the reformation was soon entangled in politics. Princes and kings, including Henry VIII of England, saw an opportunity to despoil the church of its wealth. Some German princes espoused Protestantism out of fear of imperial power. Luther himself, dependent on princely support, turned against the more radical sectaries and condemned the peasants' revolt of 1525. Foreign policy also played a part. The Valois kings of France, though combating the protestant Huguenots at home, supported the German Protestant princes against the Habsburg emperor. Although the French Huguenots won toleration by the Edict of Nantes (1598), their numbers were severely reduced during the religious wars between 1562 and 1589 (map 3), and elsewhere in Europe the second half of the sixteenth century saw a great Catholic revival, led by the Jesuit order, founded in 1534 by St. Ignatius Loyola (1491–1556), and inspired by the reforms of the Council of Trent between 1545 and 1563. Using the Jesuits as their spearhead, Catholic rulers went over to the offensive. Protestants were expelled from Bavaria (1579) and Styria (1600), and in Poland the number of Protestant churches decreased from 560 in 1572 to 240 in 1650.

The decisive phase of the struggle between Protestants and Catholics, the Thirty Years' War, took place in the Holy Roman Empire (map 4). It began in 1618–21 when the emperor Ferdinand II defeated the Bohemian Protestants at the battle of the White Mountain (1620) and won back Bohemia and Moravia for Catholicism. When he turned against the Protestant princes of Germany, Denmark, England and the Dutch intervened on the Protestant side, but the imperial forces were initially successful and in 1629 an Edict of Restitution was promulgated which reclaimed large areas of church lands held by Protestant princes. Only the intervention of Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden saved the Protestant cause from collapse. But the Swedish victories at Breitenfeld (1631) and Lützen (1632) brought in Spain on the imperial side, while France allied with Sweden and declared war on Spain (1635). The war was now a European war, but by 1644 it was evident that neither side could hope for outright victory, and in 1648 the Peace of Westphalia brought a compromise solution. Lutherans and Calvinists retained the lands they held in 1624, and the wars of religion were over. But Germany, the scene of battle, suffered a lasting setback.

Western Europe, 1558-1648

The second half of the sixteenth and the first half of the seventeenth centuries were a time of turbulence throughout Europe. In Russia the 'time of troubles' after the death of Ivan the Terrible (1584) lasted until 1613. Northern Europe was embroiled in almost continuous war from 1561 to 1658, as Sweden, independent since the time of Gustavus Vasa (1523–60), struggled with Denmark, Russia, Poland and Brandenburg for control of the Baltic and its important trade. The rise of the Swedish empire (map 3), leading to Gustavus Adolphus' intervention in the Thirty Years' War (page 74) and the Swedish acquisition of western Pomerania, Wismar and the bishoprics of Bremen and Verden at the Peace of Westphalia, vitally affected the balance of power in Europe and was one of the most significant developments of the period. In western Europe progress was more chequered. The new monarchies of the preceding period (page 72) had over-reached themselves, and from around 1536 reaction set in, particularly when rising prices, recession and widespread unemployment reinforced existing discontents. The Elizabethan Poor Law and other legislation of 1563 was no remedy; indeed, the reign of Elizabeth I (1558–1603), was less auspicious than often painted, and Elizabeth, whose relations with parliament deteriorated sharply at the end of her reign, left her Stuart successors on the English throne a legacy of unsolved problems with which they failed to cope.

From around 1530, sometimes earlier, the history of France and England was punctuated by revolts. As in Germany (page 74), they reflected a combination of religious, social and political grievances. In England the northern risings of 1536 and 1569 (page 72) were Catholic protests against the suppression of the old faith, but they also embodied the resistance of the northern gentry to centralisation and control from London. On the other wing the unrest of radical dissenters combined dissatisfaction with Henry VIII's and Elizabeth's conservative church settlements with resistance to the enclosure of common lands for the benefit of grasping landlords. A similar mixture of motives permeated the frequent uprisings, 500 in all, in France (map 2). These were largely revolts of the common people, driven to extremes by economic hardship; but in the end the most influential factor, visible in France in the revolt of the judges and nobility which drove the king from Paris in 1649, was resistance to autocracy, centralisation and taxation. The Dutch revolt, beginning in 1566, which effectively secured independence in 1609 (map 1), was inspired by fear that the central government, controlled from Spain, intended to override the traditional liberties of the Netherlands. Similar motives underlay the Catalan and Portuguese revolts against Castile (1640). The problem of the central governments was that inflation and other economic difficulties, together with the expense of war, were eating into their resources. Hence the attempt of Charles I (1625–49) to levy tonnage and poundage, collect forced loans and impose ship money (1634), levies which were the antecedent causes of the English civil war (map 4). When civil war finally broke out in 1642, it was a defence of traditional English liberties against a thrusting monarchy, a fact which explains the conservatism of the subsequent settlement. When, after the defeat of the monarchy, the Lord Protector, Oliver Cromwell, beat down the radical Levellers in 1647, the future outlines of a conservative England, dominated by the gentry, were drawn. After the Restoration in 1660, still more after 1688, power was shared between parliament, representing landowners and merchants, and the crown, with the former gradually asserting its preponderance.

In continental Europe the sequel was different. In France the failure of the Fronde broke the power of the aristocracy and cleared the way for the absolutism of Louis XIV (page 80). Only in Germany was the disarray caused by a century of religious and political conflict enduring. Here the devastation of the Thirty Years' War resulted in a decline of population from some 21 millions in 1618 to around 13 millions in 1648 (map 5), and though some regions were spared, the setback was undeniable. The outcome was a major shift in the European balance. The Habsburgs, who had dominated the previous period, were in retreat, and the future was in the hands of a resurgent France and its rivals, the maritime powers.

The English Civil War (below)

1/Edinburgh 1638: National Covenant signed.

2/Newcastle 1640: Scottish Covenanters invade England and force Charles I to buy them off.

3/Kilkenny 1641: centre of rebellion by Irish Catholics (to 1649).

4/Antrim 1641: massacre of Catholics by Protestants.

5/Westminster 1642: English Parliament raises army against Charles I.

6/Edgehill 1642: first battle of English Civil War, indecisive.

7/Westminster 1643: alliance of English Parliament and Scottish Covenanters against Charles I (to 1648).

8/Nantwich 1644: Parliamentary army defeats Irish Catholic invasion in support of Charles I.

9/Marston Moor 1644: Scots and Parliamentary army defeat Charles I and occupy N. England.

10/Lostwithiel 1644: Parliamentary army loses control of SW England to King.

11/Tippermuir 1644: Montrose and Scottish royalists defeat Covenanters.

12/Philiphaugh 1645: Montrose defeated by Covenanters and forced to flee.

13/Naseby 1645: Parliamentary army defeats Charles I and wins control of all England.

14/Burford 1647: Oliver Cromwell suppresses mutiny of Parliamentary troops (the 'Levellers').

15/Preston 1648: Cromwell defeats Covenanters' invasion of England in support of Charles I.

16/Whitehall 1649: Parliament tries and executes Charles I.

17/Drogheda and Wexford 1649: Cromwell overruns Ireland and ends rebellion there; occupied to 1660.

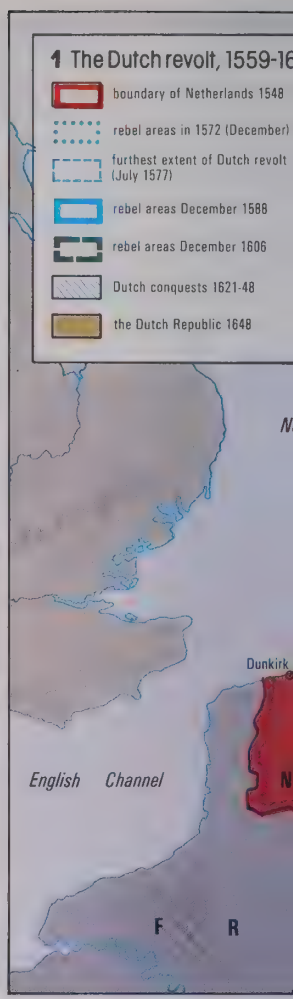
18/Dunbar 1650: Cromwell defeats Covenanters and occupies Scotland (to 1660).

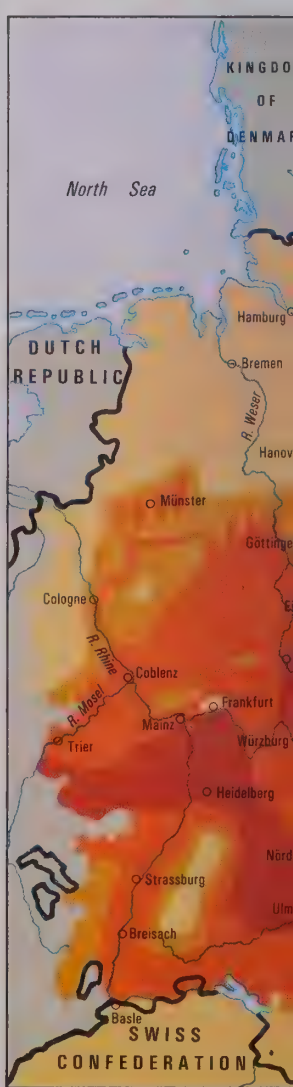
19/Scone 1651: Charles II crowned king of Scotland by Covenanters.

20/Worcester 1651: Cromwell defeats invasion of Covenanters in support of Charles II who is forced to flee abroad (to 1660).

21/Whitehall 1658: death of Oliver Cromwell (Head of State since 1654).

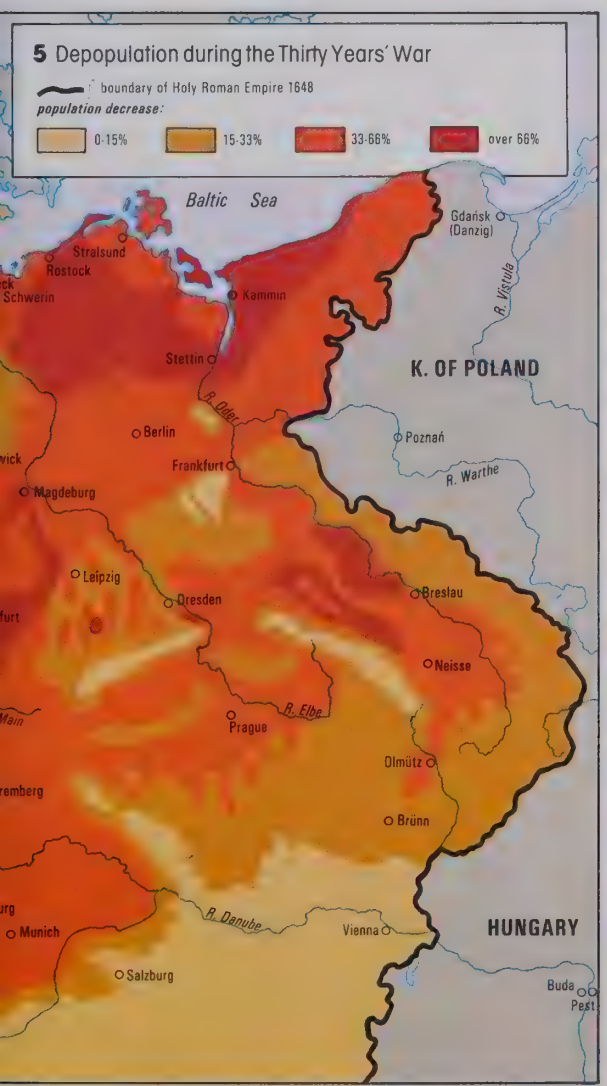
22/Westminster 1660: coronation of Charles II as king of England.





FRIESLAND
GRONINGEN
OVERIJSSEL
HOLLAND
DUTCH
Amsterdam
Deventer
Zutphen
UTRECHT
GELDERLAND
The Hague
Nijmegen
REPUBLIC
HOLY
ROMAN
EMPIRE
ZEELAND
Axel
Antwerp
Mechelen
Brussels
Leuven
Maastricht
Liège
Namur
SPANISH
NETHERLANDS

2 Revolts in France
revolts of the later 16th century in France
revolts of the early 17th century in France
Abbeville 1636
date of revolts
SPANISH NETHERLANDS
HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE
Abbeville 1636
Amiens 1626,-28,-36
Le Havre
Ligue 1589-94
Rouen 1623,-28,-34,-39
Beauvais 1648-52
English Channel
Caen 1631, 37,-39
'Nu-Pieds' of Normandy 1639-40
R. Seine
Ligue 1589-94
Paris
Ligue 1588-93
Avranches
Domfront
the 'Fronde' revolt of the judges and people of Paris 1648-53
CHAMPAGNE
Brest
Ligue 1588-98
Rennes 1636
Laval 1628
Orléans 1630-1
R. Loire
Angers 1630, -41,-43
Tours 1643,-47
Ligue 1588-96
FRANCHE-COMTÉ
Nantes 1630
BURGUNDY
SWISS CONFEDERATION
CHAROLAIS
revolts of the Huguenots 1568-89, 1621-28
Poitiers 1623,-30,32,39,-40
La Rochelle
SAVOY
Bay of Biscay
Lyons 1641-2
revolts of Peasant 'Croquants' 1594-6, 1636-7, 1643-5
1641, 1645
R. Dordogne
Grenoble 1641, 1645
Bordeaux
Ormée revolt of the judges and people of Bordeaux 1648-55
1627-31,-35
R. Rhône
R. Garonne
GUYENNE 1632-7
LANGUEDOC 1632, 1636, 1641, 1643-5
Ligue 1590-93
Avignon
PROVENCE 1638, 1643
Aix-en-Provence 1643-5
Narbonne 1635
SPAIN
Pyrenees

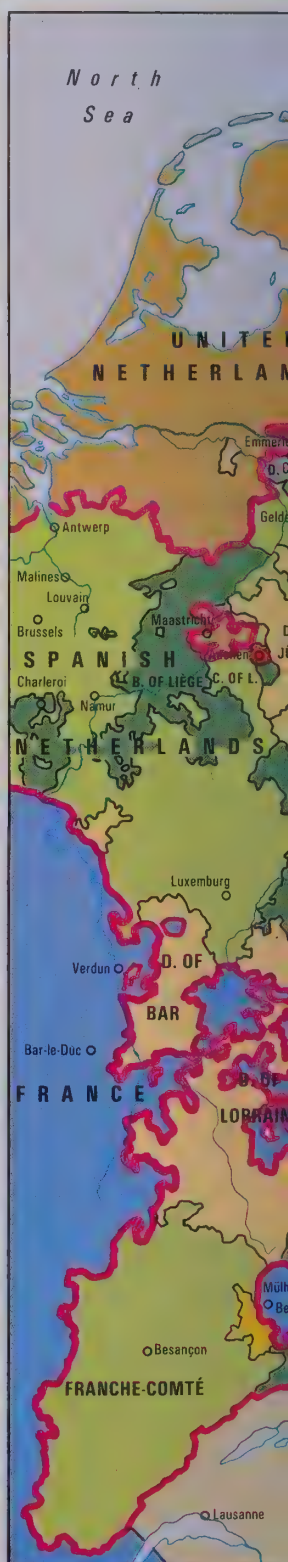

5 Depopulation during the Thirty Years' War
boundary of Holy Roman Empire 1648
population decrease:
0-15%
15-33%
33-66%
over 66%
Baltic Sea
Gdańsk (Danzig)
Stralsund
Rostock
Schwerin
Kammin
R. Vistula
Stettin
K. OF POLAND
R. Oder
Berlin
Poznań
Frankfurt
R. Warthe
Magdeburg
Leipzig
Dresden
Breslau
Neisse
R. Elbe
Prague
Olmütz
Brünn
Munich
R. Danube
Vienna
HUNGARY
Salzburg
Buda
Pest

3 The rise of the Swedish Empire
Sweden at the death of Gustavus Vasa 1560
conquests 1561-1645
conquests 1645-1658
Swedish Empire at its greatest extent 1658
JOINT NORWEGIAN SWEDISH-RUSSIAN TERRITORY
Lofoten Is.
Kabelvåg
LAPLAND
VARDÖHUS
Alstahaug
RUSSIA
VÄSTERBOTTEN
Luleå
TRONDHJEM
ÖSTERBOTTEN
ANGERMANLAND
Gulf of Bothnia
Trondhjem
JÄMTLAND 1645
1658-60
Molde
Vasa
FINLAND
KEXHOLM 1617
Sundsvall
Kristinestad
Nystad
IDRE-SÄRNA
HELSINGLAND
R. Glomma
DALECARLIA
KINGDOM OF SWEDEN
KARELIA
L. Ladoga
Viborg
Fredrikshamn
AKERSHUS (DARLANA)
Bergen
BERGENHUS
Christiania (Oslo)
R. Klarälven
UPPLAND
Åland
Åbo
NYLAND
Helsingfors
Uppsala
Gulf of Finland
Narva
INGRIA 1617
BERGSLADEN
Karlstad
Stockholm
Reval
ESTONIA 1561
L. Peipus
Stavern
L. Vänern
BOHUSLÄN
Christiansand
Norrköping
Dorpat
Skagerrak
L. Vättern
Ösel
Gothenburg
Jönköping
Visby
LIVONIA 1629
SMÅLAND
Gotland
HALLAND 1645
DUCHY OF COURLAND
Riga
Viborg
Kalmar
Öland
Libau
JUTLAND
Aarhus
BLEKINGE 1658
Copenhagen
Roskilde
Malmö
SCANIA
Baltic Sea
Memel
Fünen
Zealand
Bornholm Sw. 1658-60
Sw. 1629-35
SCHLESWIG
Gottorp
Kiel
Pillau
Vilna (Wilno)
BREMEN-VERDEN
HOLSTEIN
Stralsund
W. POMERANIA
Danzig (Gdańsk)
Königsberg
Wismar
1648
1648
1648
Elbing
DUCHY OF PRUSSIA
LITHUANIA
Marienburg
Kammin
Minsk
Hamburg
MECKLENBURG
Stettin
Grodno
Bremen
Thorn (Toruń)
HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE
BRANDENBURG
KINGDOM OF POLAND
Magdeburg
Berlin
Posen (Poznań)
Warsaw
Leipzig

Germany and its neighbours
1648-1806

The Peace of Westphalia (1648), besides bringing to a close the wars of religion (page 74), was a milestone in German history. The failure of the emperor to impose his will on the Protestant princes confirmed the political fragmentation which had gathered pace since the fourteenth century (page 54). After 1648 Germany was a patchwork of some 300 small, petty states and free cities (map 1). In addition, the independence of Holland and Switzerland was formally recognised. Theoretically the rights of the princes were limited by the rights of the Holy Roman Empire, but in practice every prince was emperor in his own lands, with full sovereign powers including the right to make foreign alliances. Political disruption was also compounded by a sharp economic setback, due partly to the devastation and depopulation resulting from the Thirty Years' War, but also to a long-term shift in the European economy. The great south German banking houses of Welser and Fugger went bankrupt in 1614 and 1627 respectively. The Hanseatic League, in disarray since the closing years of the sixteenth century, was dissolved in 1669. Everywhere the towns were in decline, particularly in Austria, Prussia and Bavaria, but even worse was the plight of the peasantry. In Bohemia and Moravia their legal rights were abolished; in the north and north-east they were ejected from their holdings to permit the consolidation of Junker estates, and reduced to serfdom (page 82). Impoverishment and stagnation were the result. A modest economic recovery occurred after 1750; but with its resources dissipated on ostentatious building and the upkeep of princely households Germany was an economic and social backwater. It was also a pawn in great power politics. Divided among themselves and fearful of Habsburg ambitions, the princes were clients of foreign powers, including England and Sweden, but particularly of France, which used its position to make inroads on German territories in the west (page 80), annexing Strassburg (1681), most of Alsace (1697), the free county of Burgundy (1714), and Bar and Lorraine (1766).

After 1648, apart from Austria, only Saxony, Bavaria and Brandenburg could claim even the status of second-rate powers. Saxony, with the mineral resources of the Erzgebirge and its varied industries, was the most advanced, while Bavaria was falling behind; but Brandenburg-Prussia was beginning, under the Great Elector (1640–88) the long climb which made it by 1786 the second German power and the rival of Austria. The rise of Prussia (map 2) is a story of tenacity, unscrupulous diplomacy, but above all of single-



minded devotion to building a strong military and administrative apparatus to weld together the scattered territories stretching from the Vistula to the Rhine. The Hohenzollern domains lacked internal and external cohesion. Prussia itself was until 1657 a Polish fief; and it was only in 1772, after the first partition of Poland (map 4) that Frederick the Great (1740–86) succeeded in creating a continuous Prussian territory from Memel to Magdeburg. More impressive, and a cardinal fact in eighteenth-century history, was the recovery of Austria after its setbacks in the Thirty Years' War and the creation of a vast new Austrian empire (map 3). This was largely the work of the great field marshal, Prince Eugene of Savoy (1663–1736). As late as 1683 Vienna itself was besieged by Turkish armies. Eugene turned the tide and by 1699 they had been thrown back and the whole of Hungary brought under Habsburg rule. Austria was now a major power in eastern Europe, while in the west the peace settlement of 1714 brought it the Spanish Netherlands and the Spanish inheritance in Italy. But it was a giant with feet of clay, with weak finances and an inadequate army. Serbia and Belgrade, acquired in 1718, were lost again in 1739. Lombardy and southern Italy in 1734–5. When, on the death of Charles VI (1711–40) and the accession of Maria Theresa (1740–80), Frederick II of Prussia seized Silesia, Austria's inherent weaknesses were exposed. Although the struggle went on until 1763, it proved impossible to dislodge the Prussians. Later both Prussia and Austria took advantage of the disarray of Poland to enlarge their territories in the east. But in the three partitions (map 4) they had to share the spoils with Russia, and their mutual suspicions and rivalry left the west exposed to France. When the French revolutionary armies marched into Germany in 1793 the old order was doomed, and in 1806 the Holy Roman Empire passed unmourned from the map of Europe.

France and Europe
1648 - 1715

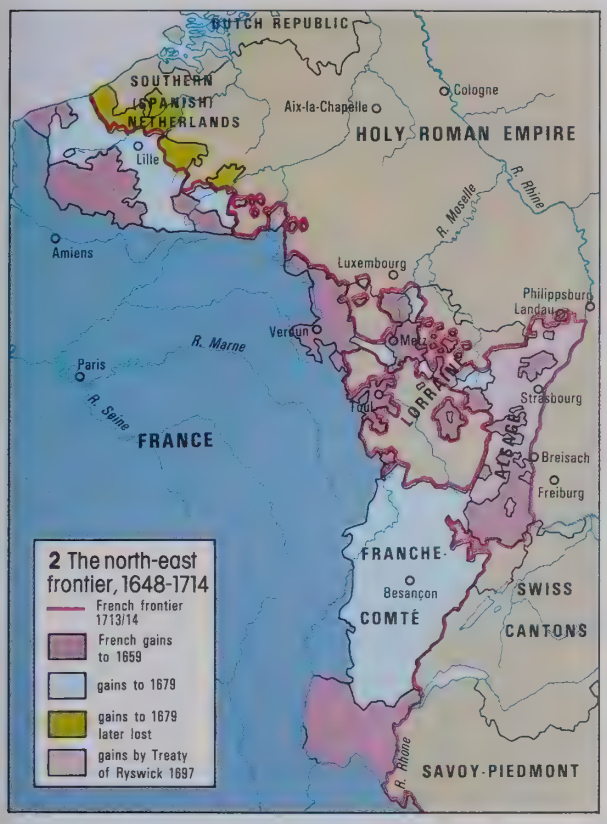
Under Louis XIV who succeeded to the throne in 1643, France became the leading country of Europe. His long minority, during Cardinal Mazarin's rule, saw the last major revolts of the aristocracy in defence of its prescriptive rights. When in 1661 Louis became effective ruler, the ground had been prepared for a new regime of centralisation and absolutism. This was the work of Mazarin, who had broken the aristocratic revolts and who turned the *intendants* into permanent representatives of the royal will in the provinces; of Louvois, who reformed the army; and particularly of Colbert's programme of financial reform. At the same time Vauban encircled France with a chain of defensive fortresses (map 1). All this was accompanied by great public works, including the Languedoc canal, connecting the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, the palace of Versailles, and much building in Paris which became the centre of the cosmopolitan civilisation of Europe.

But Louis XIV's wars, inspired by an almost neurotic fear of the revival of the empire of Charles V and the encirclement of France by Habsburg power, seriously damaged this solid achievement. Beginning with his attack on the Spanish Netherlands in 1667, they imposed a growing burden of taxation and gradually united Europe against him (map 4). England and Holland, maritime and colonial rivals since 1652 (map 3), settled their differences by the Treaty of Breda (1667) and in alliance with Sweden compelled Louis to make peace at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1668. Thereupon Louis detached England from the anti-French alliance by the Secret Treaty of Dover (1670), won over Sweden, and turned against Holland in 1672; but he was halted by an alliance between Austria, Spain and Brandenburg (which defeated his Swedish allies at Fehrbellin in 1675), and at the Peace of Nimwegen (1678) Holland emerged unscathed.

These inconclusive results convinced Louis that there was little hope of major territorial acquisitions by direct conquest, and after 1679 he turned to a policy of indirect aggression, nibbling away at German territory in the east, particularly in Alsace (map 2), the object being to absorb the remainder of the Burgundian territories which had been partitioned between France and Austria after the death of Charles the Bold in 1477 (page 72). Strasbourg was annexed in 1681, the Palatinate burnt and ravaged in 1689. But these provocative and often brutal actions united German opinion against him, and the revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685) and the persecution of the French Huguenots incensed the Protestant powers. The result was the formation of the Grand Alliance (1689), led by William of Orange, who had succeeded to the English throne after the revolution

of 1688 and the deposition of James II. Louis' attempts to foment rebellion in Ireland failed after the defeat of the French navy at La Hogue (1692), but fighting continued inconclusively on the continent until 1697, when the Peace of Ryswick registered Louis' first serious setback.

A new phase opened with the death without heirs of Charles II of Spain in 1700. This event had long been anticipated, but plans to divide the Spanish dominions in such a way as to maintain the balance of power were thwarted not only by the rivalry of France and Austria, but also by the maritime powers (England and Holland), which feared French ascendancy in overseas trade if it acquired the Spanish overseas empire. The result was the long War of the Spanish Succession (map 5), ended, in spite of the victories of Prince Eugene of Savoy and the Duke of Marlborough, by the compromise Peace of Utrecht in 1713. The French candidate retained the Spanish throne as Philip V, and France kept most of its gains on its eastern frontier (map 2). But the ruinous expense of Louis' wars left France in a desperate situation, with a legacy of financial disorder and internal discontent from which his successors never fully recovered.

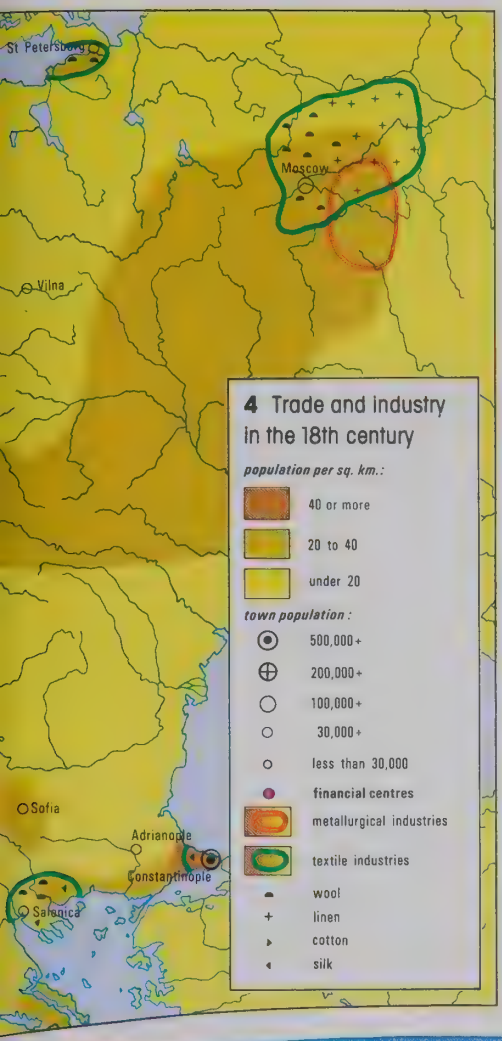


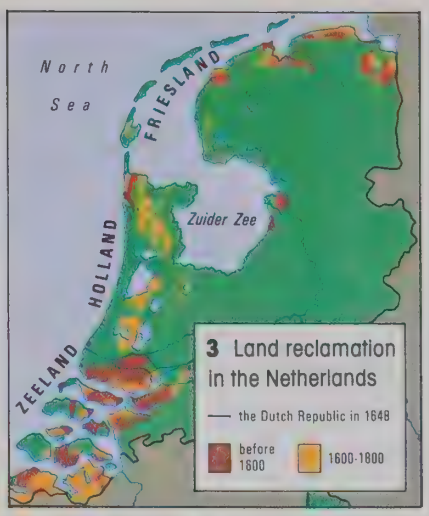
The European economy
c.1500-1815

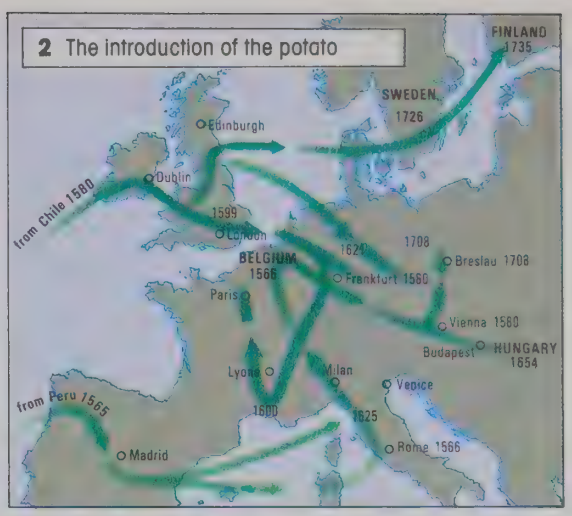
Recovery from the economic setbacks of the fourteenth century (page 56) began around 1450, and Europe's population expanded rapidly, though the fast growth of the sixteenth century was interrupted by war, rebellion, famine and plague in the seventeenth century and not resumed until the middle of the eighteenth century. Overall it increased from an estimated 69 million in 1500 to 188 million in 1800, but the increase was uneven and most marked in Britain and the Netherlands, by 1700 the greatest textile producers of Europe, the most active traders, with the largest merchant fleets and rapidly growing shipbuilding and metalware industries. The result was a shift in the economic axis. In 1500 industry was concentrated in the narrow corridor running north-south from Antwerp and Bruges through Ulm and Augsburg to Milan and Florence. By 1700 the axis ran west-east from England and Holland through the metal and woollen districts of the lower Rhine to the industrial concentrations of Saxony, Bohemia and Silesia, and thence to Russia, now beginning to build up an industrial base (map 4). The great expansion of overseas trade, particularly after 1700, also favoured the maritime powers (map 5). A consequence was the decline of the great trading cities of northern Italy, dominant two centuries earlier. In 1500 only four cities – Paris, Milan, Naples and Venice – had more than 100,000 inhabitants. By 1700 this number had trebled, and the majority of the rising urban centres lay west of the Rhine. London and Paris had already passed the half-million mark.

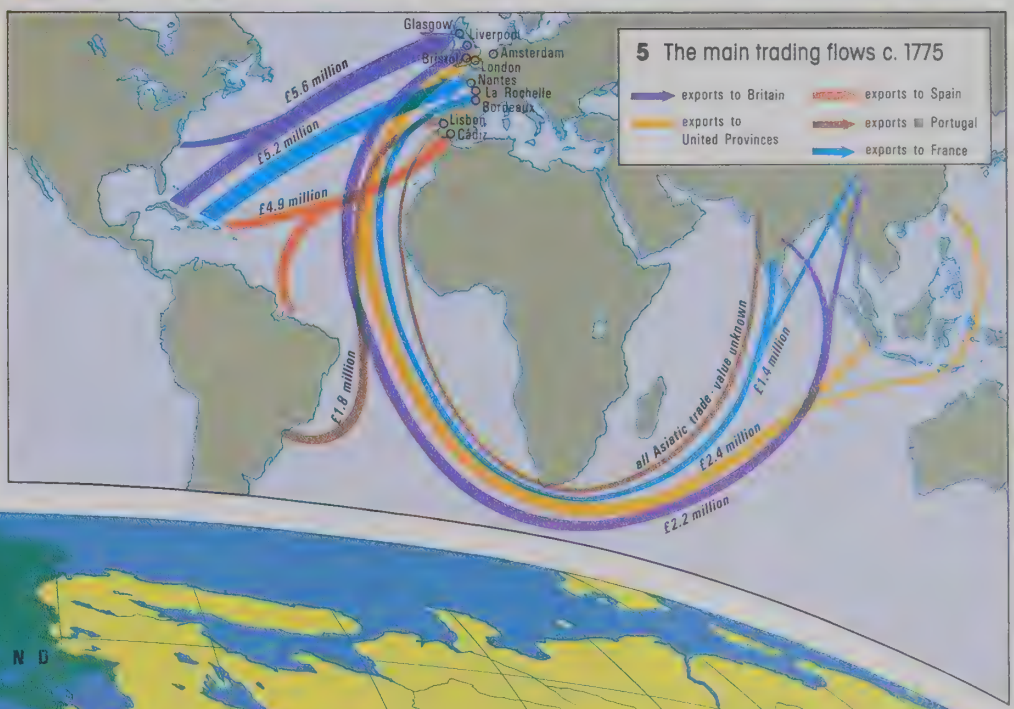
Significant as these developments were, agriculture was still Europe's most important industry. As late as 1815 three-quarters of its population were employed on the land, though here again there were sharp regional differences. In most of Europe farmers were subsistence peasants, whose smallholdings of 2–10 hectares produced only about 20 per cent more than their immediate needs. But in the west the need to feed growing urban populations led, first in Holland and then in Britain, to an agricultural revolution. The Dutch poured capital into land reclamation, recovering some 180,000 hectares between 1540 and 1715 (map 3), and developed intensive cultivation, eliminating the need to leave land fallow by means of a rotation of crops, which was later taken over in England. The growing population was also sustained by the introduction of new, more productive crops, mainly from America, including maize, which gave a far higher yield than the old regional cereals of southern Europe, and the potato, introduced in 1525, which spread slowly until it became a key field crop after 1700 (map 2). Urban demand also stimulated specialisation (Holland was exporting 90 per cent of its cheese by 1700), and generated a massive demand in western Europe for wheat and rye from Pomerania, Prussia, Poland and Russia, greatly to the profit of Holland which virtually monopolised the Baltic carrying trade in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

The profitable grain-export trade of eastern Europe adversely affected the position of the peasant population which had enjoyed relative freedom before 1500 but now was reduced to a state of abject serfdom on large commercial estates. Only on the frontiers (e.g. in Hungary and on the Volga) where they performed military service, did the peasants retain freedom. Otherwise emancipation (postponed in Russia until 1861) only came slowly after the French Revolution, and the same was true in western Germany where, following the savage repression of the great peasant revolt of 1525, feudal relationships persisted (map 1). A few rulers, notably the emperor Joseph II (1780–90) realised that improvement of productivity depended on breaking the old feudal relationships; but they were frustrated by landed interests. The position in north-west Europe was very different. Serfdom had disappeared in the Low Countries by 1300. In France and England feudal services had been replaced, even before 1500, by money rents; and although, when prices rose after 1700, French lords sought to recoup themselves by reviving ancient dues (only abolished in 1793), peasant ownership was protected by the courts. Rising prices led, in England, to enclosure of the common fields, a precondition for agricultural improvement. Rich peasants benefited, but poor peasants, driven off the land, flocked to the towns, where they provided the labour force for the new industries.


St Petersburg
Moscow
Vilna
Sofia
Adrianople
Constantinople
Salonica
4 Trade and industry in the 18th century
population per sq. km.:
40 or more
20 to 40
under 20
town population:
500,000+
200,000+
100,000+
30,000+
less than 30,000
financial centres
metallurgical industries
textile industries
wool
linen
cotton
silk


North Sea
FRIESLAND
HOLLAND
ZEELAND
Zuider Zee
3 Land reclamation in the Netherlands
the Dutch Republic in 1648
before 1600
1600-1800


2 The introduction of the potato
FINLAND 1735
SWEDEN 1726
Edinburgh
Dublin
from Chile 1580
1599
London
1624
1708
BELGIUM 1566
Breslau 1708
Frankfurt 1560
Paris
Vienna 1580
Budapest
HUNGARY 1854
Lyons
Milan
Venice
from Peru 1565
1600
1625
Madrid
Rome 1566

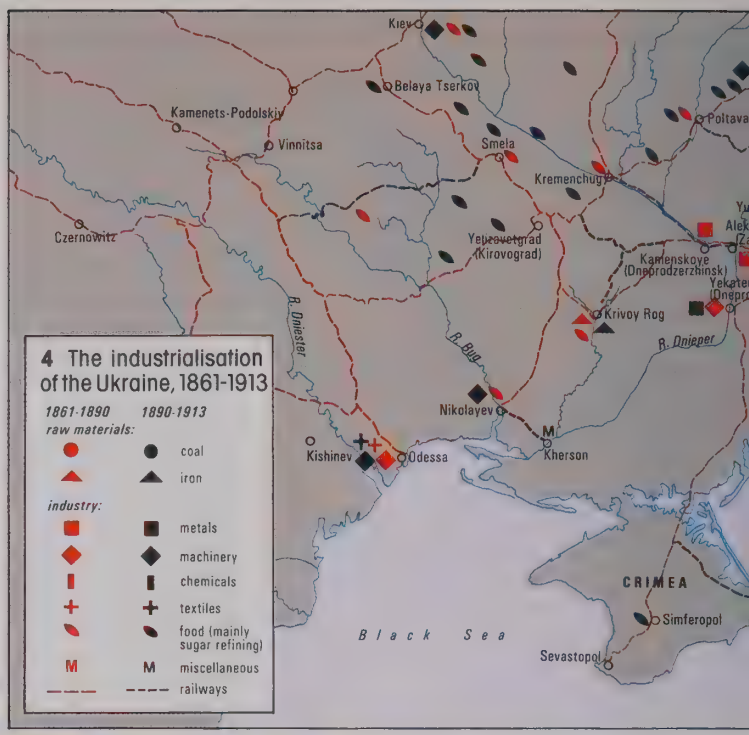

Glasgow
Liverpool
Bristol
Amsterdam
London
Nantes
La Rochelle
Bordeaux
Lisbon
Cádiz
£5.6 million
£5.2 million
£4.9 million
£1.8 million
5 The main trading flows c. 1775
exports to Britain
exports to United Provinces
exports to Spain
exports to Portugal
exports to France
all Asiatic trade value unknown
£1.4 million
£2.4 million
£2.2 million

SWEDEN
FINLAND
Stockholm
St Petersburg
Baltic Sea
Riga
Königsberg
Danzig
PRUSSIA
POLAND
Warsaw
Moscow
RUSSIA
Kiev
Lemberg
Saratov
AUSTRIA HUNGARY
Budapest
Odessa
The Military Frontier
Bucharest
R. Volga
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
Sofia
Black Sea
Salonica
Constantinople
Athens
Mediterranean Sea
65°
60°
55°
50°
40°
45°

The expansion of Russia, 1462-1905

The rise of modern Russia dates from the reign of Ivan III (1462–1505). During the preceding century the principality of Moscow had expanded at the expense of its immediate neighbours; but it was still a tributary of the Mongols (page 46), and in the west it was hemmed in by the great Polish-Lithuanian state, which extended deep into the Ukraine (page 56). Ivan III threw off the Mongol overlordship (1480), and in the west his conquest of the ancient republic of Novgorod (1478) opened the way to Livonia and the White Sea. Under his son Vassily (1503–33) and his grandson Ivan IV (1533–84) the advance continued. The subjection of the Khanate of Kazan (1552) opened the way across the Urals into Siberia; the conquest of the Khanate of Astrakhan (1556) gave Moscow control of the Volga to the Caspian Sea. But in the west Lithuania and Poland, joined after 1560 by Sweden, fought back vigorously, and during the 'time of troubles' following the death of Ivan IV made substantial gains at Russian expense (map 1). This, on the other hand, was the time of the great Russian thrust across Siberia, which, beginning in 1582, reached the Sea of Okhotsk by 1639 (map 2).

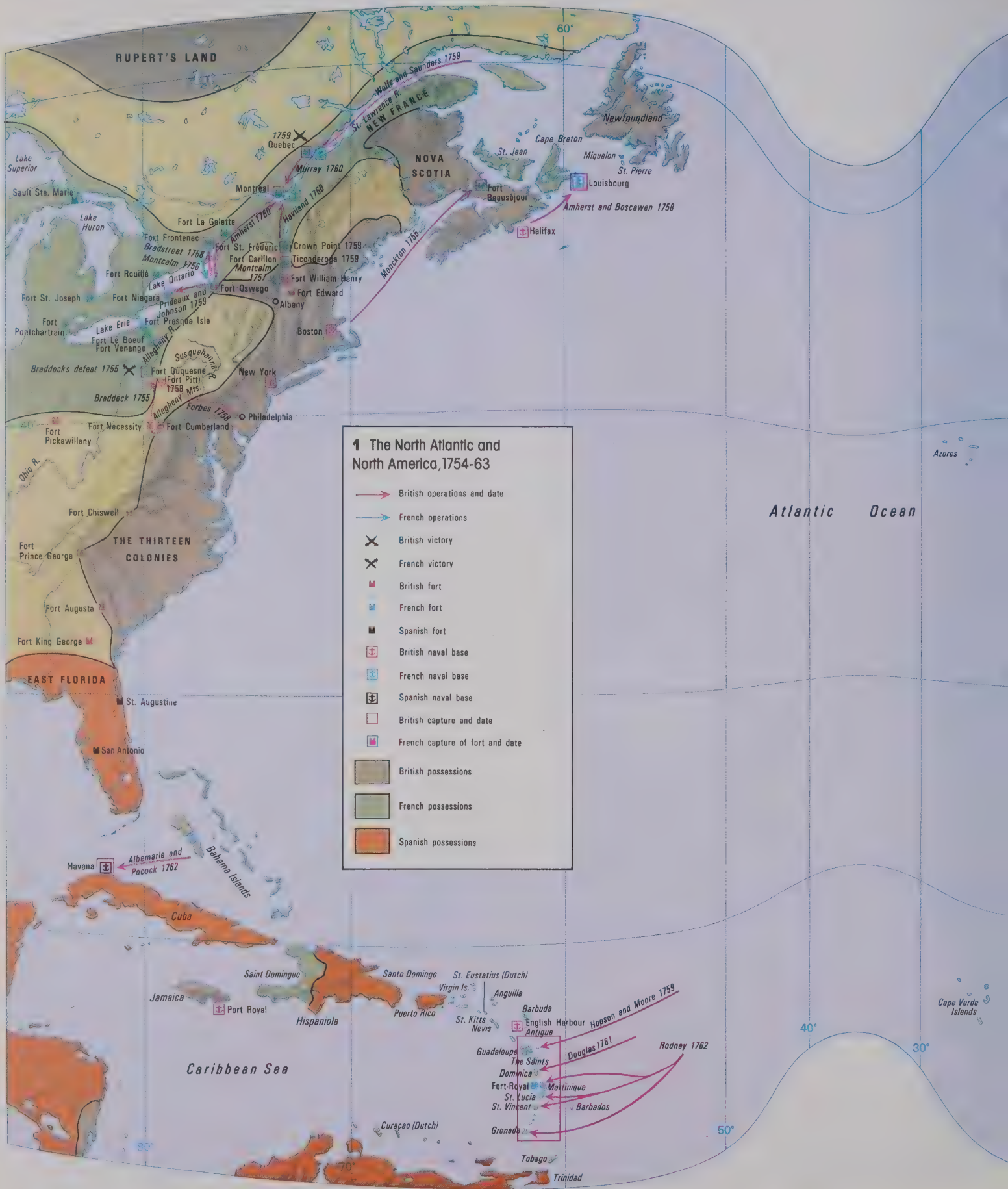
Siberia, where the population in 1720 was only about 400,000, still counted for little. The axis of Russian expansion was in the west, its thrust symbolised by Peter the Great's foundation of the new capital, St. Petersburg (1703). His long Swedish wars, concluded by the Peace of Nystad (1721), brought him Estonia, Livonia and part of Karelia. Russia now had free access to the Baltic. Under Catherine II (1762–96) it won control of the northern shore of the Black Sea, where Odessa (founded 1794) became a main outlet for Russian exports. But the question of secure access from the Black Sea to the Mediterranean remained unsolved. It was to be a central concern of Russian policy in the nineteenth century, and when it was thwarted by the other European powers in 1856 and again in 1878 Russia turned from Europe to Asia, securing control of the Caucasus (1857–64) and then of the Khanates of Tashkent (1865), Samarkand (1868), Bukhara (1868), Khiva (1873) and Kokand (1876), while in the Far East it conquered the Amur and Ussuri regions at the expense of China (map 3). But defeat in the Crimean War (1854–56) convinced Russia of its backwardness, and in 1861, as a first step to modernisation, the serfs were liberated. Some went to Siberia, far more to the towns, where they provided a working force for industrialisation which began in the 1870s and was especially rapid 1893–1904 and 1909–13, when it exceeded the American growth rate. A metallurgical industry was developed in the Ukraine (map 4) producing mainly rails for the expanding railways. But it was also unstable. Russian ambitions in the Far East excited British and Japanese fears, and the result was the Anglo-Japanese alliance (1902) and the Russo-Japanese war of 1904–5 (page 126), which halted Russian expansion until 1945. At home the consequences were even more ominous. An urban proletariat had been formed which became the mainstay of the revolution of 1905 and more fatefully still in 1917.



Barents Sea
Kola Peninsula
White Sea
Baltic Sea
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Sea of Azov
FINLAND 1809
ESTONIA 1721
LIVONIA 1721
COURLAND 1772
LITHUANIA 1772
POLAND 1795
AUSTRIA
MOLDAVIA
BESSARABIA 1812
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
NOVGOROD TERRITORY
PECHORA 1478
YUGRA 1478
MARI 1489
UDMURTY 1489
KHANATE OF KAZAN 1552
CHUVASHI
MORDVA
MESHCHERA
NOGAI TARTARS
BASHKIRS
SIBERIA
KHANATE OF ASTRAKHAN 1556
KALMUKS
DON COSSACKS
ZAPOROZHYE
KHANATE OF CRIMEA
KUBAN COSSACKS
DAGHESTAN
GEORGIA 1801
AZERBAIJAN 1805
ceded temporarily by Persia 1723-32
Ural Mts
Archangel 1584
Kholmogory
Obdorsk 1595
Berezov 1593 1501
Solikamsk
Kargopol
Solvychegodsk
Ustyug
Vologda
Soligalich 1364
Galich
Kostroma
Yaroslavl
Nizhniy Tagil 1724
Perm 1724
Yekaterinburg 1725
Kungur
Vyatka
Kazan
Nizhniy Novgorod
Arzamas
Ufa 1586
Simbirsk 1648
Samara 1586
Syzran 1683
Penza 1650
Tambov 1636
Orenburg 1743
Saratov 1590
Tsaritsyn 1589
Kamyshin
Guryev 1645
Astrakhan
Voronezh 1586
Yelets 1592
Kursk 1586
Belgorod 1593
Kharkov 1654
Poltava
Kiev
Novograd-Volynskiy
Lemberg
Chernigov
Gomel
Bryansk
Orel 1564
Tula
Kaluga
Serpukhov
Kolomna
Ryazan
Moscow
Vladimir
Murom
Dmitrov
Tver
Yaroslavl
Mozhaysk
Vyazma
Smolensk
Velikiye Luki
Pskov
Novgorod
Narva
St. Petersburg 1703
Kronstadt 1704
Vyborg
Gulf of Finland
L. Ladoga
L. Onega
L. Peipus
L. Ilmen
Riga
Memel
Kovno
Vilna
Grodno
Minsk
Mogilev
Vitebsk
Polotsk
Pinsk
Lublin
Warsaw
Kalish
Sevastopol 1783
Simferopol 1784
Bakhchisaray
Karasubazar
Yevpatoriya
Feodosiya (Kaffa)
Kerch
Yekaterinodar 1792
Stavropol
Taganrog
Azov
Cherkassk
Kherson 1774
Ochakov
Nikolayev 1789
Sech
Odessa 1794
Akkerman
Kishinev
Kamenets
Bratslav
Yekaterinoslav (Kodak) 1786
Pyatigorsk
Vladikavkaz
Sukhum-Kale
Kutaisi
Poti
Tiflis
Derbent
Baku
Taganrog
Mariupol (Zhdanov)
Novocherkassk
Rostov
Yuzovka (Donetsk)
Makiyevka (Makeyevka)
Aleksandrovsk-Grushevskiy
Gorlovka
Kadiyevka
Lugansk
Druzhkovka
Kramatorsk
Lisichansk
Millerovo
Chertkovo
Yekaterinodar (Krasnodar)
Novorossiysk
R. Neva
R. Onega
R. Dvina
R. Volga
R. Oka
R. Kama
R. Vyatka
R. Sukhona
R. Vychegda
R. Pechora
R. Ob
R. Mezen
R. Northern Dvina
R. Onega
R. Lovat
R. Western Dvina
R. Niemen
R. Vistula
R. Pripet
R. Dniester
R. Prut
R. Dnieper
R. Don
R. Donets
R. Danube
R. Terek
R. Kuma
R. Kura
R. Ural
R. Belaya
R. Sura
R. Khoper
1 Muscovy and the Russian Empire, 1462-1815
boundary of Russian territories in 1462
boundary of Lithuania in 1462
the expansion of Muscovy :
Moscow territory at end of 13th century
1478 date of acquisition by Muscovy
acquisitions to 1462
acquisitions under Ivan III, 1462-1505
acquisitions during 16th century (1505-86)
acquisitions during 17th century
acquisitions during 18th century
acquisitions 1801-15
territory ceded to Sweden 1617 and Poland 1618
recovered from Poland 1634
recovered from Poland 1667
area affected by Pugachev uprising 1773-4
route of Pugachev rebels
Orel 1564 date of foundation of new town

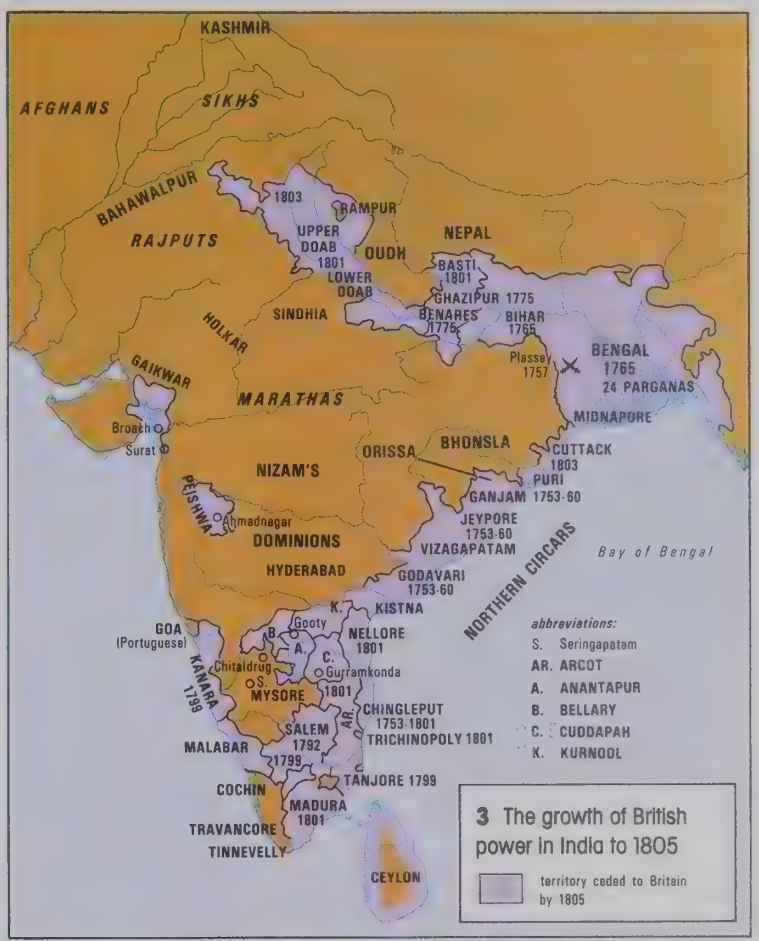
The struggle for empire
1713-1805

The Treaty of Utrecht (1713), which ended the War of Spanish Succession (page 80), sought to establish stability in Europe and overseas on the basis of a balance of power. But owing to commercial disputes and colonial rivalries, particularly in America, peace remained precarious. In 1739 war broke out between England and Spain; in 1740 Frederick II of Prussia, supported by France, seized Silesia (page 78); and when France, supporting Spain, declared war on England in 1744, the European and overseas wars were fused into a single global conflict. It also quickly turned into a duel between England and France, particularly when, after the inconclusive Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), fighting again broke out in North America in 1754. Here the French, with their strategically situated forts, were initially successful. But the whole situation changed when William Pitt the Elder, later Earl of Chatham, became British prime minister in 1756. By allying with and subsidising Prussia, struggling to retain Silesia against an overwhelming French-Austrian-Russian coalition, Pitt compelled France to concentrate on the continental war. Naval victories at Quiberon Bay and Lagos in 1759 assured British control of the Atlantic and prevented reinforcements reaching Canada (map 1). The result was the loss of the French and, when Spain entered the war on the French side in 1761, of the



Spanish colonial empires in North America. At the Peace of Paris (1763) the French and Spanish possessions in the West Indies were restored, but England retained the North American mainland east of the Mississippi, including Florida which was ceded by Spain.

The British triumph was nevertheless short-lived. When the thirteen colonies rebelled in 1776 (page 92), France, which had rebuilt its navy, supported the rebels and by naval action compelled Great Britain to recognise American independence in the Treaty of Versailles (1783). In India, on the other hand, Britain built an empire which lasted until 1947. Here again, sea-power was decisive, enabling the English East India Company to checkmate the ambitions of the able French governor, Joseph Dupleix, to build a French empire in the Carnatic (map 2). By 1761 France was eliminated as a rival in India. But the decisive fact was the decline of the Mughal empire (page 48). After the death of Aurangzeb (1707) Maratha chiefs and Mysore asserted their independence. The resulting conflicts forced the British East India Company to take action (map 3). Clive's victory at Plassey (1757) brought Bihar, Orissa and Bengal under British rule. The fall of Tipu in Mysore (1799) ensured their ascendancy in the south. By the end of the governor-generalship of Richard Wellesley (1797–1805), British supremacy was an acknowledged fact. Revolutionary France attempted a comeback, and Napoleon planned an invasion of India (page 90). But once again sea-power was decisive, and in 1815 Great Britain occupied an unrivalled position in the colonial world.



The age of revolution
1773-1810

1755, 1793 Corsica Local clans led by Paoli rebelled against Genoese rule and established independent democratic government. France bought island from Genoa in 1768, crushed revolt. Second attempt by Paoli to secure independence from (revolutionary) France, 1793, resulted in brief British occupation; rise of Bonaparte, himself a Corsican, put an end to separatist movement.

1768 Geneva Middle-class citizens of small city-state rebelled against domination by few patrician families; with French support the latter stayed in control.

1773 South-East Russia Serfs, Cossacks and Asiatic tribes rebelled in Volga and Ural region under leadership of Pugachev, ■ Don Cossack. Russian army put down revolt in 1774.

1775 America Resistance by Britain's Thirteen Colonies to her financial policies resulted in open warfare and Declaration of Independence, 1776.

1784 Dutch Netherlands Three-cornered struggle for power between Stadtholder, patrician families who controlled Estates General, and middle class Patriot party which aimed to democratise government. In 1787 Prussian troops defeated Patriot army and restored Stadtholder with greater powers.

1787 Austrian Netherlands (Belgium) Revolt against centralising policy of Emperor Joseph II, leading to proclamation of the Republic of the United Belgian Provinces (1790). Fights broke out between aristocratic and middle-class rebels; Austrian Emperor reconquered area, 1790.

1789 France (See main text). Risings by peasantry and Parisians overthrew feudal social and political order; Louis XVI's opposition and attempted flight led to abolition of monarchy (1792). King and Queen were guillotined as traitors (1793). Threat of invasion led to Jacobin 'reign of terror', ended by fall and execution of Robespierre (1794). Following weak and corrupt rule of Directory (1795–99) power passed to Napoleon Bonaparte.

1789 Liège Middle-class citizens supported by workers and peasants expelled prince-bishop and abolished feudalism. Bishop restored by Austrian troops, 1790.

1790 Hungary Magyar nobles rejected edicts of Austrian emperor and demanded greater independence for Hungary within Habsburg Empire; later, frightened by peasant disturbances, accepted compromise with the monarchy.

1791 Poland King, supported by lesser nobles, adopted new constitution designed to strengthen Poland against Russian encroachment. Catherine II of Russia, at invitation of greater nobles, invaded, destroyed constitution and divided large areas of Polish territory between Russia and Prussia. Attempt by Kościuszko and lesser nobles to strengthen surviving Polish state (1794) crushed by Russia and Prussia; Poland partitioned and ceased to exist as a separate state.

1791 Haiti Slave rising in western (French) part of island (Saint Domingue) resulted in rise of black leader, Toussaint l'Ouverture; by 1801 had conquered rest of island from Spaniards and secured virtual independence. Island then seized by the French, rising suppressed, and independence not fully secured until 1825.

1793 Sardinia In return for expelling French revolutionary invaders, islanders demanded autonomy within combined kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia. King reasserted his authority when French threat subsided in 1796.

1798 Ireland Rebellion of United Irishmen seeking independence from England, put down by British army. Suicide of Wolfe Tone.

1804 Serbia Peasant rising against local garrison developed into demand for autonomy within Ottoman Empire. Under Karageorge Serbs fought fiercely for three years before revolt crushed by Turks.

1808 Spain After Napoleon placed his own brother, Joseph, on throne, ■ peasant rebellion gave assistance to British expeditionary force under Wellington. Middle-class intellectuals proclaimed constitution, but it did not survive restoration of Bourbon king in 1814.

1809 Tyrol After Austria renewed war against Napoleon, the peasants of Tyrol, whose territory had been taken from Austria by Napoleon in 1805 and given to Bavaria, rebelled under Hofer against new rulers. Revolt was crushed by Bavarian and French troops.

1810 Spanish America (See page 96).

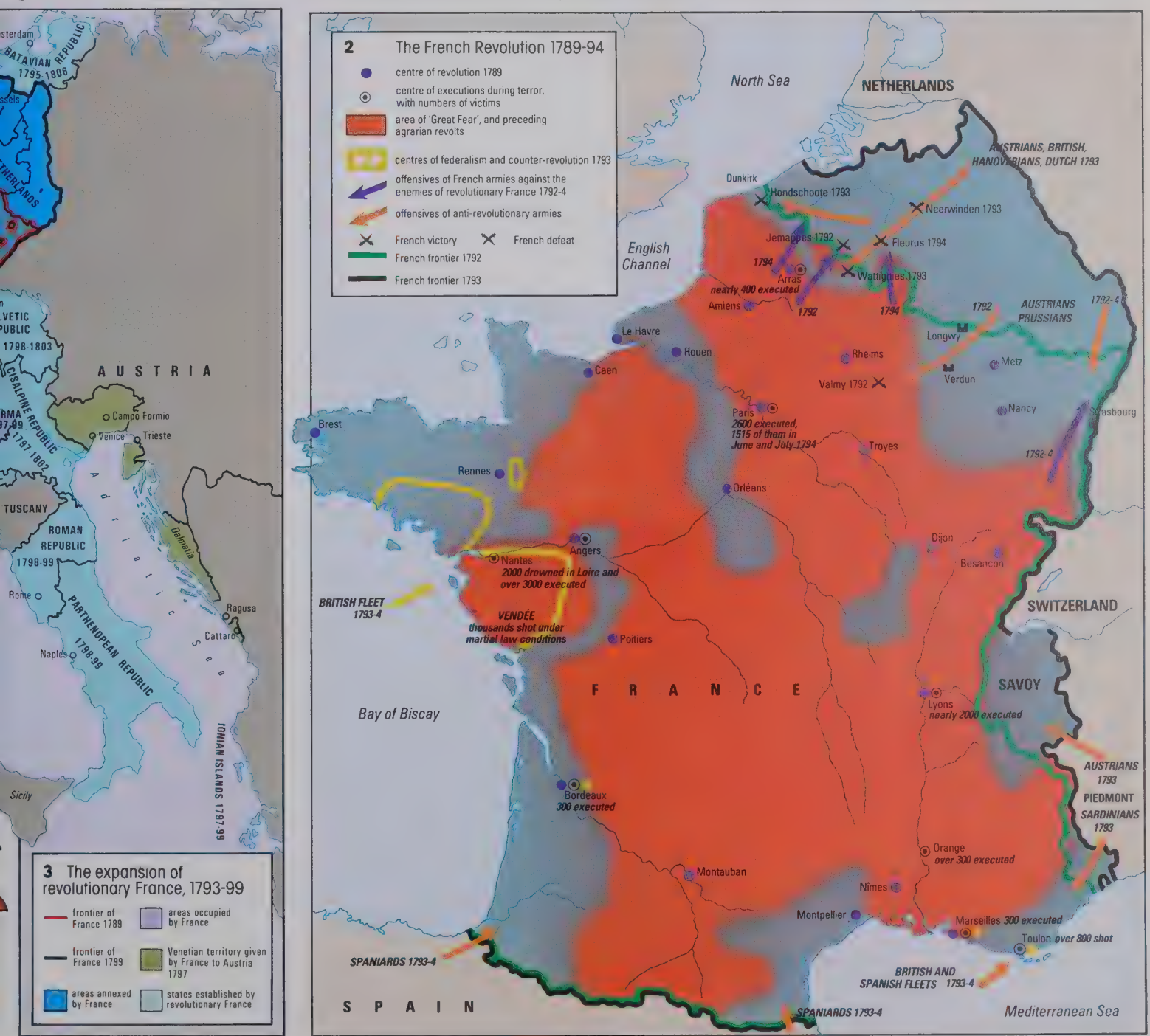
1 Revolts and revolutions in Europe and America

boundaries at 1789 — areas affected by revolution

The second half of the eighteenth century was a time of revolutionary ferment throughout the western hemisphere, from the Volga, where a great peasant insurrection under Pugachev in 1773 took Kazan and threatened Moscow, to Haiti, where the black population rose in rebellion in 1791 under Toussaint l'Ouverture and won control of the island by 1801. The character of the many rebellions of the period (map 1) was varied, but all derived, directly or indirectly, from the Enlightenment, with its assertion of the rights of man, its rationalism and rejection of traditional authority. Paradoxically, it was enlightened rulers, such as Catherine II of Russia (1762–96) and Joseph II of Austria (1780–90), searching for more modern and efficient foundations for government, who gave practical expression to the new ideas, thus provoking the opposition of vested interests, aristocratic and provincial. Provinces like the Austrian Netherlands (1787) and Hungary (1790) rose in rebellion against the centralising policies and reforming edicts of progressive rulers; colonial peoples resisted dictation by the home government and demanded autonomy or at least no taxation without consent, as in North America in 1775 (page 92) and in South America after 1808 (page 96). The demand for independence was the commonest motive for revolt, and lay behind the risings in Ireland (1798), Corsica (1755, 1793), Sardinia (1793), Spain (1808), Serbia (1804), and the Tyrol (1809). Sometimes they were underpinned by social unrest; but this was exceptional. Serfdom was abolished in Savoy (1771), Austria (1781), Baden (1783) and Denmark (1788), and peasants had more to hope for from reforming monarchs than from nobles who were their oppressors. Hence their failure to support the gentry in the Polish revolts of 1791 and 1794. Revolts against patrician oligarchies occurred in Geneva (1768) and the Netherlands (1784–87); but usually it was only when concerted aristocratic opposition to the monarchy opened the flood-gates that the peasants and the labouring class took a hand. This was what happened in France after 1787.

The immediate cause of the French revolution was the financial crisis arising from the American war (page 86). By 1786 the government was faced with bankruptcy, and after a vain attempt to persuade an Assembly of Notables to tax the privileged classes, Louis XVI was forced by a rebellious aristocracy to summon the Estates-General which had not met since 1614. When the Estates-General turned itself into a National Assembly on June 17, 1789, the revolution had begun, but it was still a middle-class revolution, and the constitution drawn up in 1791 showed their distrust of the masses by limiting the right to vote. But they counted without the workers, exasperated by a serious economic crisis and by fear of counter-revolution. In Paris, a popular rising stormed the Bastille (July 14, 1789); in the provinces peasants burned châteaux and murdered landlords. Matters now proceeded apace (map 2), particularly when Austria and Prussia threatened invasion. This sealed the fate of constitutional monarchy. In 1792 a republic was proclaimed; in 1793 Louis XVI was executed and a Committee of Public Safety set up, first under Danton and then under Robespierre, which instituted a reign of terror against enemies at home, while Carnot mobilised an army of 770,000 men against enemies abroad.

By 1795 the French armies were victorious and the revolution had spent itself. Spain and Prussia made peace; French troops held Belgium and the left bank of the Rhine, while William V of Holland was deposed and his country turned into a Batavian republic, closely bound to France, forerunner of other similar republics from Naples to Switzerland (map 3). French influence was spreading far and wide, a victory not simply for French arms but for the ideas and achievements of the revolution, equality before the law, the abolition of feudalism, and the 'rights of man' as defined in the famous declaration of October 2, 1789. When French troops entered the Rhineland in 1792 they were welcomed as liberators and 'brothers' by the educated middle classes. Except among the conservative peasantry, who fought the revolution in France itself from 1793 to 1802, the principles of the French revolution had immense appeal; and though their appeal was later dimmed, they lighted a torch which was never extinguished, even during the reaction which set in after 1815.



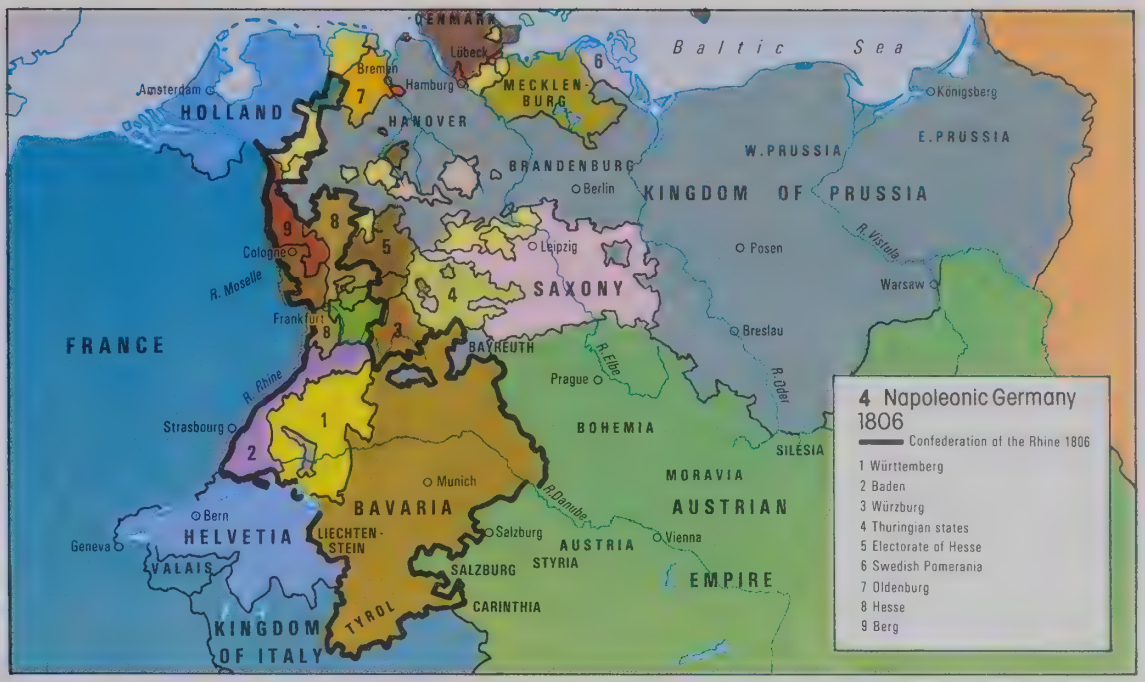
Napoleonic Europe

In 1799 the 31-year-old general Napoleon Bonaparte seized power in France and was to rule until 1814, first as First Consul and then, after 1804, as emperor. His reign was a watershed in the history not only of France but of the whole of Europe. Napoleon had won his reputation by his spectacular victories over Sardinia and Austria in the Italian campaign of 1796; but after 1799, particularly during the Consulate, he proved as brilliant a statesman and administrator as a general. In 1799 Frenchmen, particularly the urban and rural middle classes, wanted peace and security. Napoleon gave them both. The wars were ended by the treaties of Lunéville (1801) and Amiens (1802); for the first time in ten years there was general peace in Europe. At home he gave the citizens who had supported the 'Thermidorian reaction' of 1794 the stability which the Directory (1795–99) had failed to provide. But he was no reactionary. He made it his task to mould the essential achievements of the revolution into permanent institutions. In 1800 the 83 *départements* into which France had been divided in 1789 were reorganised under prefects responsible to the First Consul. The new civil code of 1804 confirmed the property rights created by the revolution and won him the lasting support of the peasant proprietors who were the backbone of the country. At the same time a career open to talents was provided for men of ability rising through the system of state schools and universities established in 1802.

These achievements outlived Napoleon himself, but peace proved elusive. A durable settlement might have been reached with the continental powers, Prussia and Austria; but the issues between France and England were too deep-seated for compromise, and in 1803 Great Britain declared war on France. Thereafter war continued almost without interruption until 1815. In essence it was a continuation of the Anglo-French conflict of the eighteenth century (page 86), complicated by the traditional British fear, ever since the French occupation of the Austrian Netherlands in 1792, of a hostile great power on the Scheldt. From that time Great Britain was the moving spirit behind the anti-French coalitions which it kept going, as in the Seven Years' War, by subsidies. France, on the other hand, had not abandoned the hope of recovering the overseas empire lost in 1763. Napoleon's expedition to Egypt (1798–99) was intended to open the back door to India, and there were other plans for recuperating France's position in the Caribbean and on the American mainland. They were foiled by British control of the sea. Nelson's destruction of the French fleet at Aboukir sealed the fate of the Egyptian expedition (map 2), and elsewhere the French navy was no match for the British, which thwarted French attempts to intervene in Ireland (1797–98) and a projected invasion of England in 1804 (map 3). After Nelson's victory at Trafalgar (1805), British control of the seas was assured, and Napoleon had no alternative except to turn against Britain's continental allies, hoping in this way to seal off Europe and bring Britain to heel by economic pressure.

Napoleon's campaigns against Austria, Prussia and Russia in 1806 and 1807 were brilliantly successful, and 1810 saw him at the peak of his power, directly controlling the whole of western Europe from Catalonia to Lübeck as well as Italy west of the Apennines, with satellite kingdoms and duchies in Spain, the remainder of Italy and Westphalia (map 1). But so long as Britain held out, Napoleon's position was insecure. Control of the sea enabled the British to land an expeditionary force under the future Duke of Wellington in Spain (1808). His at-

tempt to close the continent to British trade led to his breach with Russia. The invasion of Russia (1812) was an act of desperation, a gamble which failed, and after the retreat from Moscow and the battle of Leipzig (1813) Napoleon's fate was sealed. In the reaction which followed much, but not all, of his system perished. In Germany, in particular, the Napoleonic settlements of 1797–98 and 1803 reduced the 234 territories of the old empire to 40 (map 4), and after 1815 there was no going back. Equally important were the institutional changes introduced on the French model. A society based on wealth and merit rather than prescription and privilege was introduced in the Netherlands, the Rhinelands and north-east Italy, and even countries like Prussia reformed to meet the French challenge. The political geography of Europe was rationalised and the modern national state was born, fragile at first but destined to command the future.



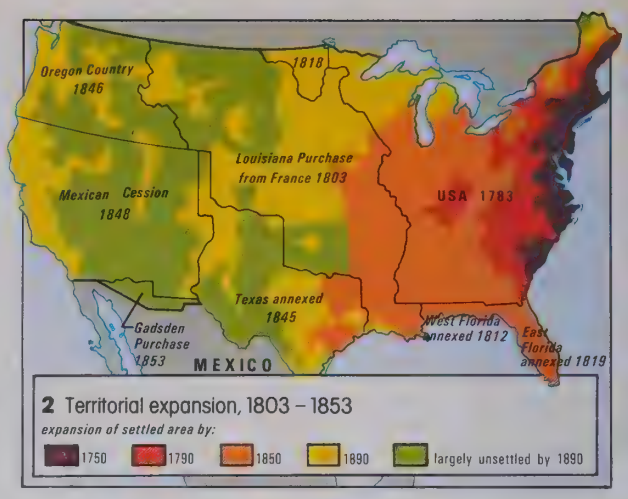
The United States
1783-1865

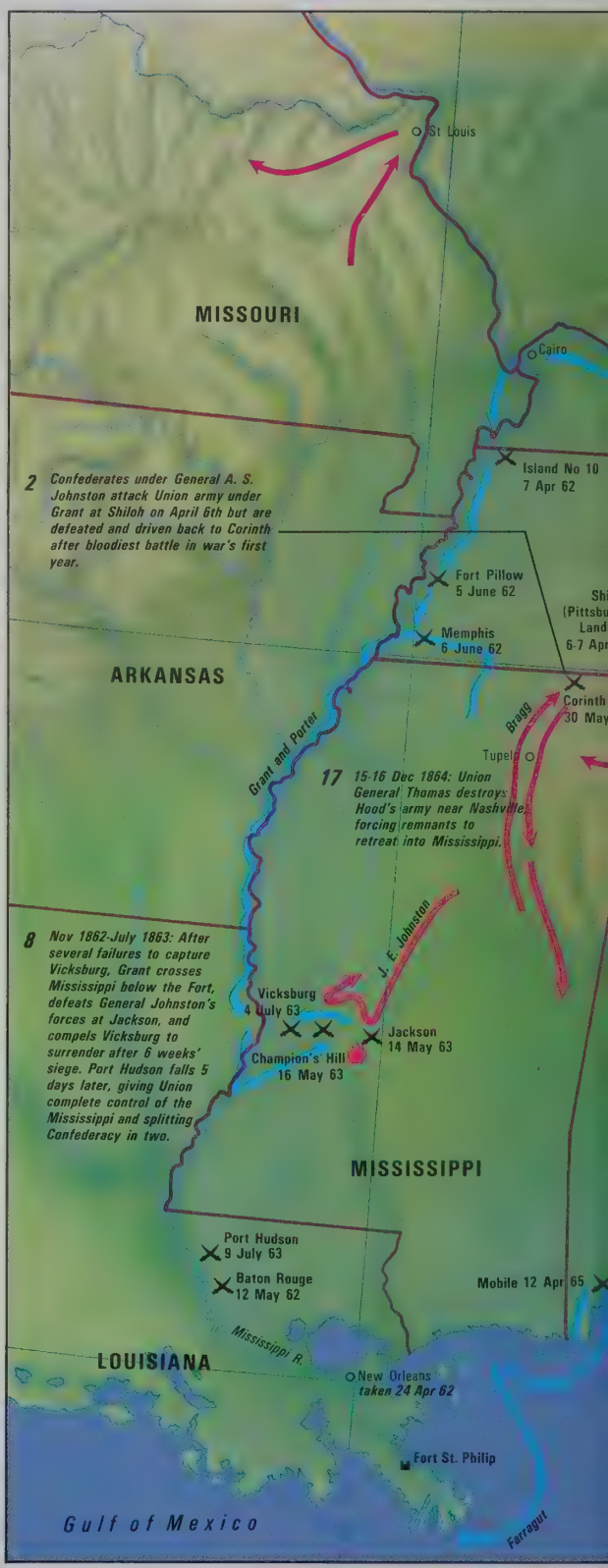
The disputes and difficulties leading to the American War of Independence and the foundation of the United States began almost immediately after the English victory over France and the acquisition of Canada at the Peace of Paris in 1763 (page 86). When the British government reorganised its vastly expanded North American possessions, establishing a huge Indian reserve west of the Alleghenies (1763) and extending the boundaries of Quebec to the Mississippi and Ohio rivers (1774), its measures were bitterly resented by the colonists in New England, Virginia and Pennsylvania as a check to westward expansion. This resentment, combined with resistance to English tax demands and trade controls, was one of the factors behind the revolt of the American colonies. The War of Independence (map 1) began at Lexington and Concord in Massachusetts in April 1775 and was ended, after the British surrender at Yorktown (October 1781), by the Treaty of Versailles (1783), which extended the frontiers of the newly independent United States to the Great Lakes in the north and the Mississippi in the west.

Once independence was achieved, expansion proceeded rapidly. In 1783 the new republic comprised some 800,000 square miles of territory. The purchase of Louisiana from France (1803) more than doubled its extent. Thereafter expansion in the south and west was largely by conquest at the expense of Mexico (map 2), though the Oregon question, finally settled in 1846, looked for a moment as though it might bring war with Great Britain. In the north settlers moved into the 'back country' in increasing numbers after 1800, but it was the arrival of a new wave of European immigrants, predominantly German and Irish, which populated the Midwest. By 1860 the frontier of settlement had reached the 98th meridian, the dividing line between sparse and adequate rainfall.

This vast territorial expansion, which raised the population from approximately 3,000,000 in 1783 to 31,000,000 on the eve of the Civil War, had important political consequences. By 1860 the original 13 states had increased to 34. The result was a deterioration in the relative position of the Southern states with their plantation economy and black slave population, as a result of which the plantation aristocracy saw itself being swamped by the industrialising North and the growing Midwest. This, rather than the simple issue of slavery, was the underlying cause of the American Civil War, but the issues were in fact inseparable because, with over 90 per cent of the black population living in the South (map 3), the moral question was also a regional question. Abraham Lincoln, elected President in 1860 by a northern vote, was right when he said that the nation could not permanently remain 'half-slave and half-free.'

The North fought at first to preserve the Union; but, significantly, it was over the question of whether slavery should be permitted in Kansas and Nebraska that the conflict came to a head. Soon after Lincoln's election South Carolina seceded from the Union and was quickly joined by ten other states (map 4) which came together as the Confederate States of America with their capital at Richmond, Virginia. The course of the war, which opened with an attack on Fort Sumter in April 1861, can be followed on map 5. Northern strategy was to deny the South vital resources by a naval blockade, to gain control of key river routes and forts in the west and to capture the Confederate capital of Richmond. In spite of the preponderance of the North in manpower and resources, the South held out for four years, a fact which heightened the bitterness and resentment during the subsequent period of Reconstruction. The outcome has been called 'the Second American Revolution'; by crippling the Southern ruling class and liberating its labour force, it determined that the thrusting, urban, industrialised North, with its creed of competitive capitalism, would stamp its pattern – for good or ill – on post-bellum America.





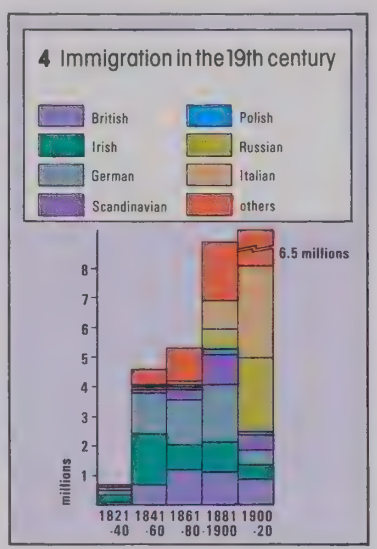
4 Union and Confederate states
Union states
Confederate states
slave states that stayed in the Union
WASHINGTON TERR.
OREGON
CALIFORNIA
NEVADA
territories not yet states
NEBRASKA TERR.
UTAH TERR.
NEW MEXICO TERR.
KANSAS
INDIAN TERR.
TEXAS
MINNESOTA
IOWA
MISSOURI
ARKANSAS
LOUISIANA
WISCONSIN
ILLINOIS
MICHIGAN
INDIANA
OHIO
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
MISS
ALABAMA
GEORGIA
FLORIDA
PENN
W.VA
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
NEW YORK
MAINE
VT
NH
MASS
RI
CONN
NJ
MD
DEL
5 The American Civil War, 1861 - 1865
Union campaigns
Confederate campaigns
1-20 chronology of campaigns
major battle, with date
1 Feb-June 1862: Union forces under Generals Grant, Pope and Buell aided by river gunboats seize key points on the Mississippi, Tennessee and Cumberland rivers.
2 April-May 1862: Union ships under Admiral Farragut aided by troops under General Butler capture forts at mouth of the Mississippi, force New Orleans to surrender and gain control of the Mississippi as far north as Port Hudson.
3 Slaves, 1850
without slaves
under 10%
10% – 30%
30% - 50%
50% and over
4 Mar-July 1862: Gen. McClellan's peninsular campaign fails to capture Richmond; Union forces retreat after bloody 7 Days' Battles.
5 Mar-June 1862: Confederate General Jackson's brilliant campaigns in Shenandoah Valley keep Union troops from reinforcing McClellan near Richmond.
6 Aug-Sept 1862: Lee invades Maryland but is stopped by McClellan at Antietam and retreats to Virginia.
7 Oct 1862: Attempt by Confederate Generals Bragg and Smith to gain control of Kentucky defeated at Perryville, ensuring Union domination of border states.
8 Dec. 1862-May 1863: Union armies under Burnside and Hooker invade Virginia but are repulsed by Lee and Jackson at Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville.
9 2-9 April 1865: Lee abandons Richmond and Petersburg; Grant and Sheridan pursue him to Appomattox Courthouse, where he surrenders 9 April.
10 June-July 1863: Lee invades Pennsylvania, suffers defeat by Meade at Gettysburg 1-3 July, retreats into Virginia.
11 Jan-Aug 1863: After drawn Battle of Murfreesboro, Union troops under General Rosecrans force Bragg back to Chattanooga.
12 Aug-Nov 1863: Confederates under Bragg evacuate Chattanooga, defeat Rosecrans's advancing forces at Chickamauga, besiege the Unionists in Chattanooga for two months until Federals under Grant break siege and drive Confederates into Georgia.
13 May-Sept 1864: Sherman invades Georgia, captures Atlanta after prolonged campaign.
14 May 1864-April 1865: In the longest campaign of the war, Grant invades Virginia, fights several indecisive battles with heavy casualties, forces Lee into defensive lines around Richmond and Petersburg.
15 15 Nov-13 Dec 1864: Sherman marches from Atlanta to the sea, destroying Confederate resources.
18 Feb-Mar 1865: Sherman marches northward from Savannah, driving Johnston before him and hoping to catch Lee in a pincers between himself and Grant.
19 2-9 April 1865: Lee abandons Richmond and Petersburg; Grant and Sheridan pursue him to Appomattox Courthouse, where he surrenders 9 April.
20 26 April 1865: Johnston surrenders to Sherman at Bennett's House, ending war.
Sept-Dec 1864: Confederates under Hood invade Tennessee, hoping to cut Sherman's supply lines.
Blockade 1861-5: Union navy blockades 3,500 miles of southern coastline from beginning of war, but not until last 2 years of conflict is blockade effective. By 1865 there are 500 northern ships patrolling southern coast, capturing half the blockade runners trying to get vital supplies to Confederacy.
Fort Sumter 12-14 Apr 61 bombarded by Confederates
Wilmington evacuated 22 Feb 65
Fort Fisher 15 Jan 65
Columbia burned 17 Feb 65
Savannah evacuated 21 Dec 64
Atlanta burned 1 Sept 64
Kenesaw Mt 27 June 64
Chattanooga 25 Nov 63
Lookout Mt 24 Nov 63
Chickamauga 19-20 Sept 63
Knoxville 2 Sept 63
Franklin 30 Nov 64
Murfreesboro 31 Dec 62-2 Jan 63
Nashville 15-16 Dec 64
Fort Donelson 16 Feb 62
Fort Henry eb 62
Bowling Green
Louisville
Frankfort
Perryville 8 Oct 62
Buell
Bragg
E.K. Smith
Cumberland R.
Tennessee R.
Allegheny Mts
Hood
Sherman
Macon
Olustee 20 Feb 64
Pensacola
Fort Pickens
Jacksonville
Raleigh 11 Apr 65
J. E. Johnston
Goldsboro 23 Mar 65
New Bern
Fayetteville 12 Mar 65
Pittsburgh
Harrisburg
Philadelphia
40°
Gettysburg 1-3 July 63
Lee
Antietam 17 Sept 62
Winchester 13-14 June 63
Strasburg
Kernstown 23 Mar 62
Cedar Mountain 9 Aug 62
Wilderness 5-6 May 64
Spotsylvania 8-12 May 64
Fredericksburg 13 Dec 62
Chancellorsville 1-4 May 63
1st and 2nd Bull Run (Manassas) 21 July 61 and 29-30 Aug 62
Baltimore
Washington
Lynchburg
Appomattox
Grant
Sheridan
Richmond burned 3 Apr 65
Petersburg
Merrimac and Monitor 9 Mar 62
Fort Monroe
Norfolk 9 May 62
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW JERSEY
MARYLAND
DELAWARE
VIRGINIA
WEST VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
ALABAMA
FLORIDA
TENNESSEE
KENTUCKY
Atlantic Ocean

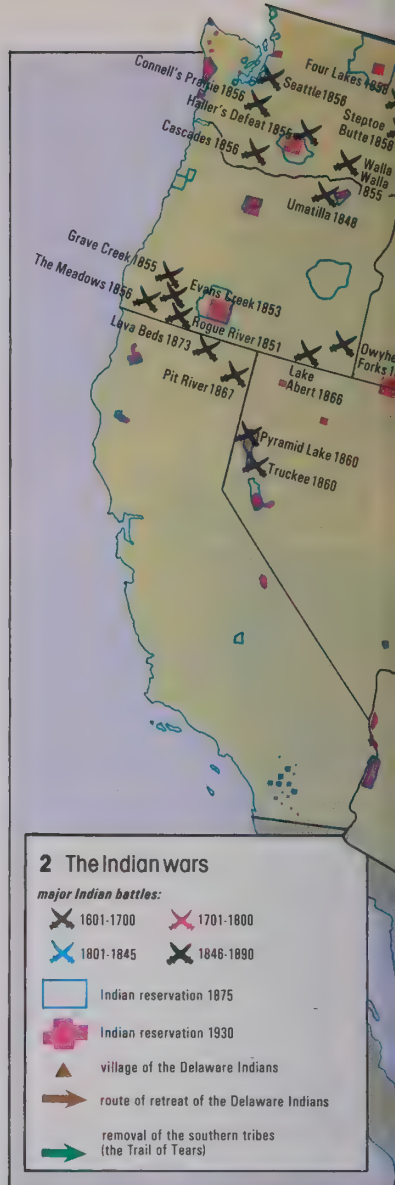
The expansion of the United States
1803-1898

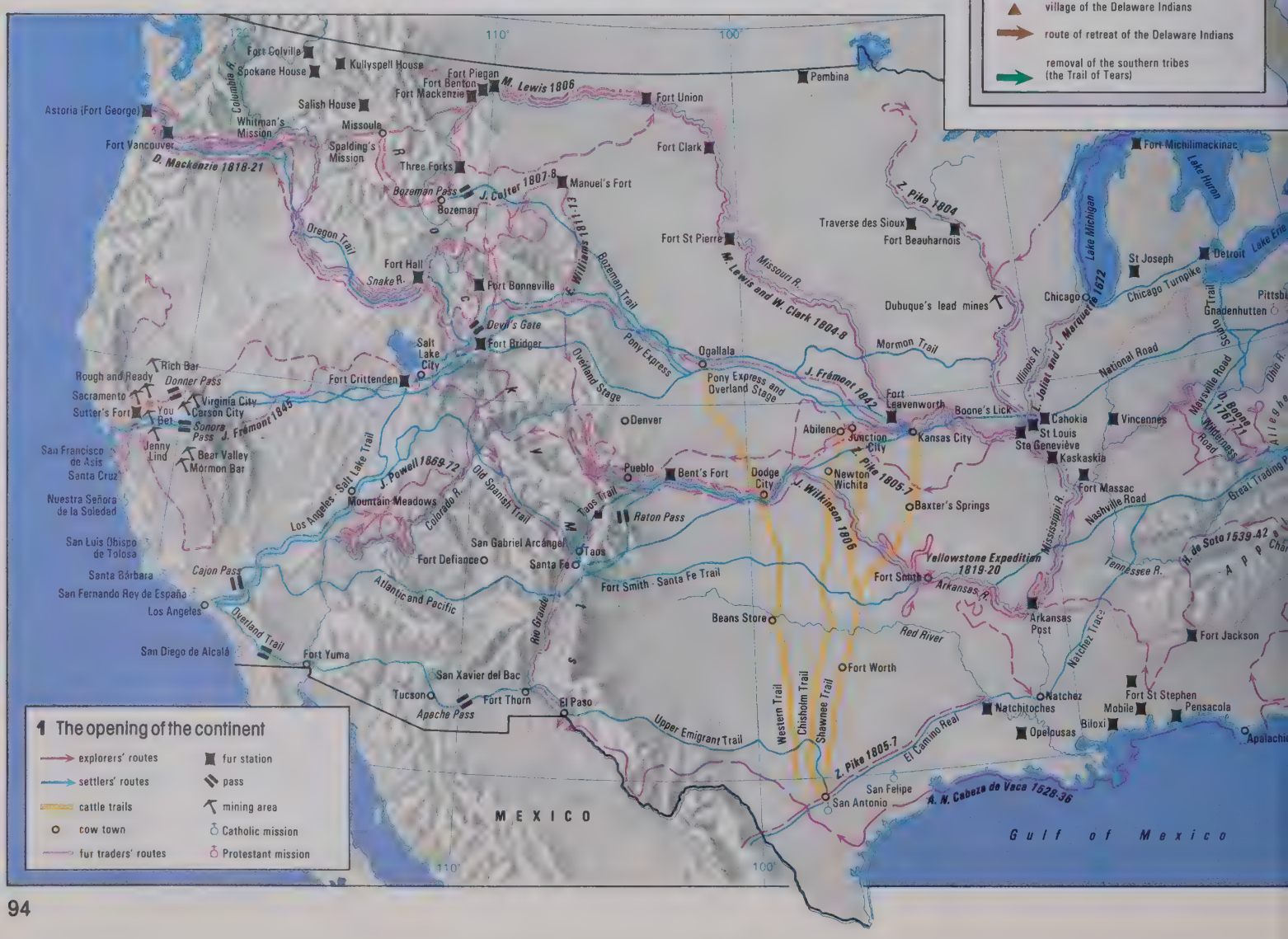
The dominant fact in the history of the United States during the nineteenth century was the opening of the continent. In 1783 the effective frontier of the new Republic was the Allegheny Mountains (page 92). The Louisiana Purchase (1803) opened vast new areas for explorers, led by the famous expedition of Lewis and Clark (1804–8), and for settlers who quickly followed in their wake (map 1). After the Mexican wars (1846–8) and the discovery of gold in California (1848) prospectors, miners, speculators and settlers pushed west across the mountain chains from Salt Lake City and Santa Fe or by the Overland Trail from San Antonio. The great westward movement, bolstered by a confident belief in America's 'manifest destiny', could not, however, proceed without brutal disregard for the native population. The destruction of the North American Indians had begun much earlier in New England in the Pequot war of 1636, and the Delaware Indians were uprooted and driven west before the end of the eighteenth century; but it was in the 1830s, when the land-hunger of the white planters and settlers became insatiable, that the expulsion of whole tribes, Cherokee, Chocktaw, Creek and Chickasaw, and their deportation to the Midwest (and later to Indian reservations) got underway. By 1840 the frontier had reached the 100th meridian, and it was here, in the Midwest and West, that the great battles of the 1860s and 1870s took place, which reduced the Indian population to scarcely more than 200,000 by the end of the nineteenth century (map 2).

In their place, and usurping their lands, poured in a flood of immigrants, mainly from Europe, which reached its peak in the last decade of the century (diagram 4). In the later phases most of the immigrants (from southern and eastern Europe) remained in the cities on the eastern seaboard, where they swelled the industrial proletariat; but by mid-century Germans and Scandinavians had formed a preponderant element on the farming frontier of Wisconsin, Iowa and Minnesota, and in the last quarter of the century British and Irish settlers, as well as native Americans, played an important part in the development of cattle ranching and stock raising in Texas, Wyoming and New Mexico. British capital and British land companies also contributed. But the most important area of European investment before 1914 was the financing of American railways, particularly the transcontinental lines. Railroads in operation in 1840 were confined to a few industrial regions in the east. British capital provided the finance to double the mileage between 1866 and 1873 and to carry it west, and this westward shift of transport and population was accompanied by a similar shift of agricultural production (map 3). The effects were dramatic. By 1890, when the rail network was larger than that of the whole of Europe, including the British Isles and Russia, a population moving onto virgin lands, with improved mechanisation, such as the steel plough, new strains of cotton, wheat and maize, and the ubiquitous barbed wire fence, had made the United States the world's leading agricultural producer.

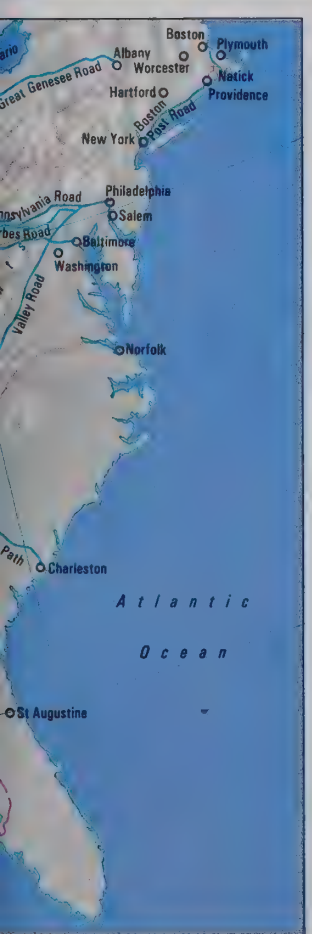
By 1890 the frontier was closed, the prospect of indefinite opportunities within the boundaries of the United States becoming a thing of the past. West of the 100th meridian population was still sparse, and urban and industrial development negligible (page 110); the great upsurge in the colonisation and development of California and the Pacific seaboard was still to come. Nevertheless 1890 marked a turning point, registered in 1898 when the United States, denying its own past refusal to involve itself in other continents, turned from the American continent to the wider world of Asia. In 1898 American history merged into world history, with incalculable consequences for the future.

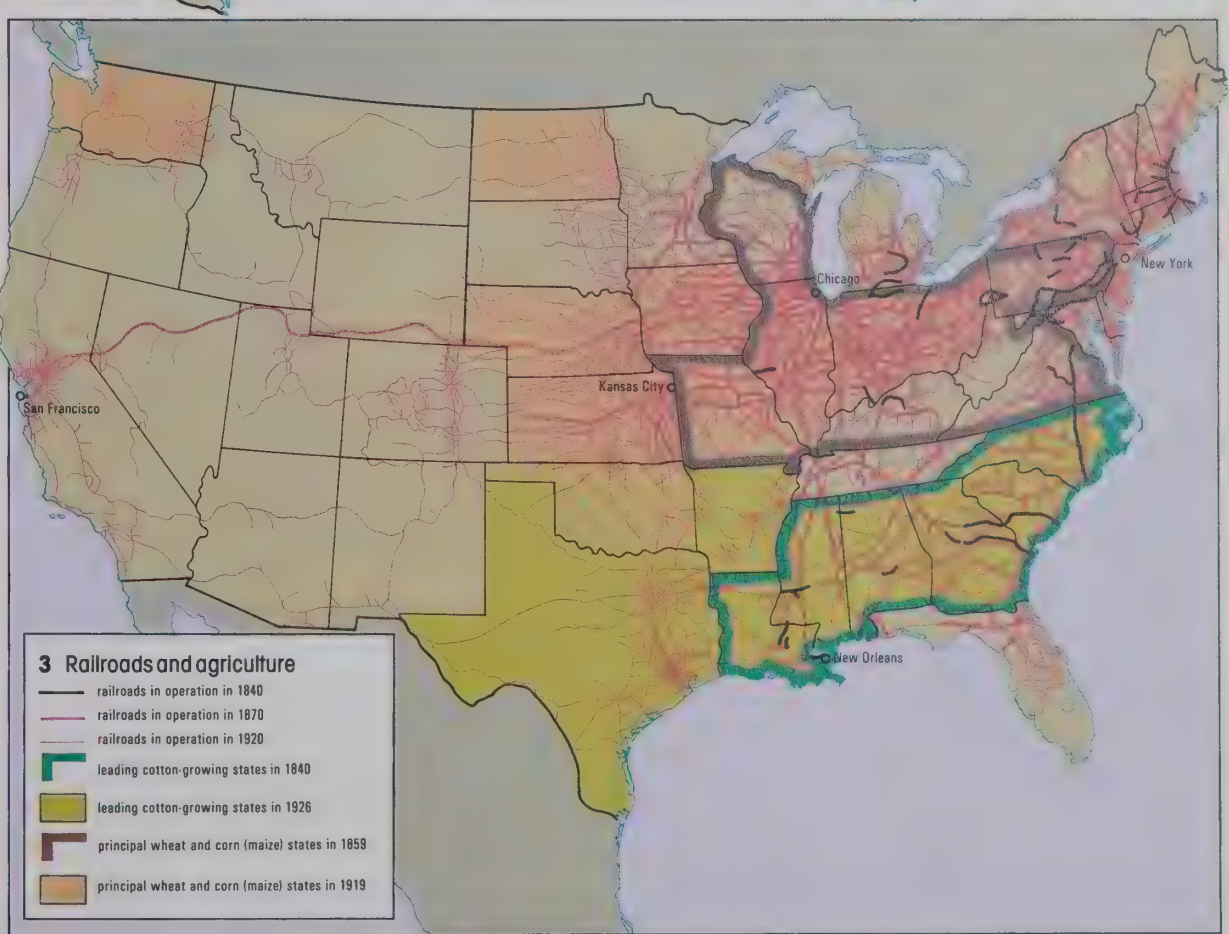






Bear Paw Mountains 1877
Killdeer Mountain 1864
Cedar Creek 1876
Clearwater 1877
Yellowstone 1873
Big Hole 1877
Stony Lake 1863
Big Mound 1863
Dead Buffalo Lake 1863
Little Big Horn 1876
Whitestone Hill 1863
Rosebud 1876
Slim Buttes 1876
Arickara 1823
Acton 1862
Fetterman's Defeat 1868
Wood Lake 1862
Redwood Ferry 1862
Hole-in-the-Wall 1876
New Ulm 1862
Bad Axe 1832
Point of Rocks 1874
Wounded Knee 1890
Grattan's Defeat 1854
Mud Springs 1865
Rush Creek 1865
Ash Hollow 1855
Fort Sedgwick 1865
Fort Kearney 1867
Milk Creek 1879
Sand Creek 1864
Crooked Creek 1859
Round Mountain 1861
Washita 1868
Bird Creek 1861
Wichita Village 1858
Dove Creek 1863
Remaquid 1747
Lovewell's Fight 1725
Sudbury 1676
Bloody Brook 1676
Narragansett Fort 1675
Pequot Fort 1637
Great Swamp 1637
Bloody Ridge 1763
Detroit 1712, 1763
Fort Dearborn 1812
Fallen Timbers 1794
Haman's Defeat 1790
Stillman's Defeat 1832
Fort Pitt 1763
Bushy Run 1763
Fort Ligonier 1763
St Clair's Defeat 1791
Tippecanoe 1811
Old Chillicothe 1779
Piscataway Fort 1675
Pamunkey 1624
York River 1676
Bloody Run 1676
Logan's Fort 1777
Jonesboro
Springfield
Padgett's
Nashville
Murfreesboro
Tuscararas 1713, 1712
CHEROKEE
Tustenahlah 1861
Ratesville
Fort Gibson
Cherokees 1760
Tomassee 1776
Memphis
Huntsville
New Echota
Fort Coffee
Fort Smith
CHICKASAW
Tuscumbia
Gunterville
Etowah 1793
Little Rock
Arkansas Post
Yamasees 1715
Montgomery's Point
Talladega 1813
Horseshoe Bend 1814
Fort Towson
Camden
Monroe
CHOCTAW
CREEK
Fort Mitchell
Sharon 1782
Vicksburg
Montgomery
Fort Mims 1813
Burnt Corn 1813
Mobile
New Orleans
SEMINOLE
Swamp 1835
Withlacoochee 1835
Fort Mellon 1837
Dade Massacre 1835
Lake Okeechobee 1837


Boston
Plymouth
Albany
Worcester
Great Genesee Road
Hartford
Natick
Providence
Boston Post Road
New York
Philadelphia
Salem
Baltimore
Washington
Valley Road
Norfolk
Charleston
Atlantic
Ocean
St Augustine

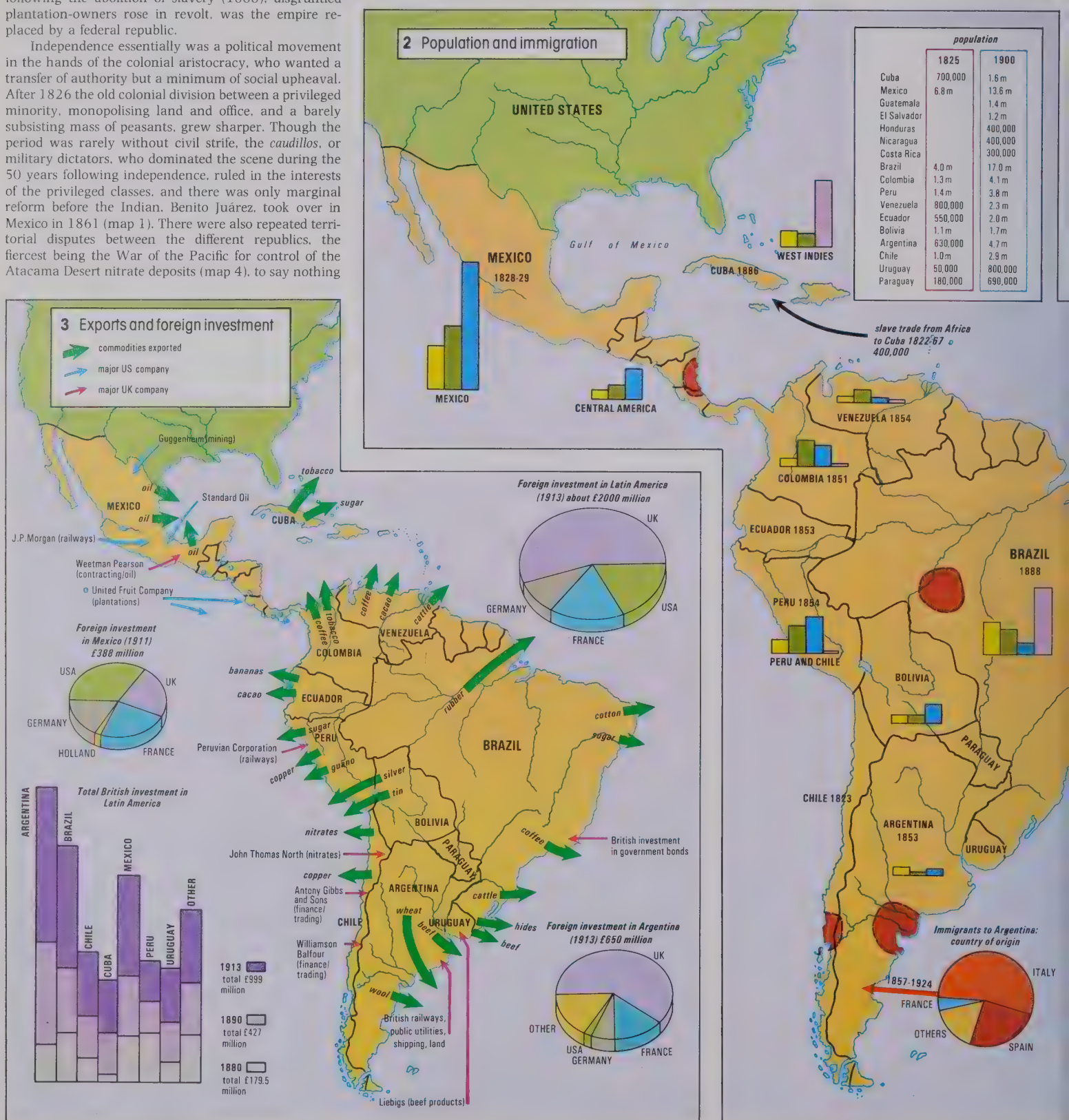

3 Railroads and agriculture
railroads in operation in 1840
railroads in operation in 1870
railroads in operation in 1920
leading cotton-growing states in 1840
leading cotton-growing states in 1926
principal wheat and corn (maize) states in 1859
principal wheat and corn (maize) states in 1919
Chicago
New York
Kansas City
San Francisco
New Orleans

Independent Latin America
1808-1910

Napoleon's invasion of Spain and Portugal in 1808 (page 90) enabled their colonies to assert their independence. The revolt began in Argentina in 1810 and Venezuela in 1811, and was later helped by Great Britain and the United States which prevented intervention by the Holy Alliance. After the fall of Lima (1821) and Bolívar's victory at Ayacucho (1824) Spain's fate in South America was sealed. In the north, early revolts in Mexico were suppressed, but in 1823 a republic was proclaimed, and a last Spanish attempt at reconquest in 1829 was defeated by Santa Ana. Only Brazil made the transition to nationhood peacefully. Here Portugal agreed to a constitution, and in 1822 the Portuguese king's eldest son became ruler of an independent Brazilian empire, as Pedro I. Only in 1889 when, following the abolition of slavery (1888), disgruntled plantation-owners rose in revolt, was the empire replaced by a federal republic.

Independence essentially was a political movement in the hands of the colonial aristocracy, who wanted a transfer of authority but a minimum of social upheaval. After 1826 the old colonial division between a privileged minority, monopolising land and office, and a barely subsisting mass of peasants, grew sharper. Though the period was rarely without civil strife, the *caudillos*, or military dictators, who dominated the scene during the 50 years following independence, ruled in the interests of the privileged classes, and there was only marginal reform before the Indian, Benito Juárez, took over in Mexico in 1861 (map 1). There were also repeated territorial disputes between the different republics, the fiercest being the War of the Pacific for control of the Atacama Desert nitrate deposits (map 4), to say nothing of the wars with the United States (page 92) which deprived Mexico of 40 per cent of its territory. Bolívar had plans for an all-encompassing South American Union, but they came to nothing at the Congress of Panama (1826). Instead, such federations as existed (e.g. Great Colombia, 1819–30) quickly fell apart into their constituent elements, usually representing former Spanish administrative units.

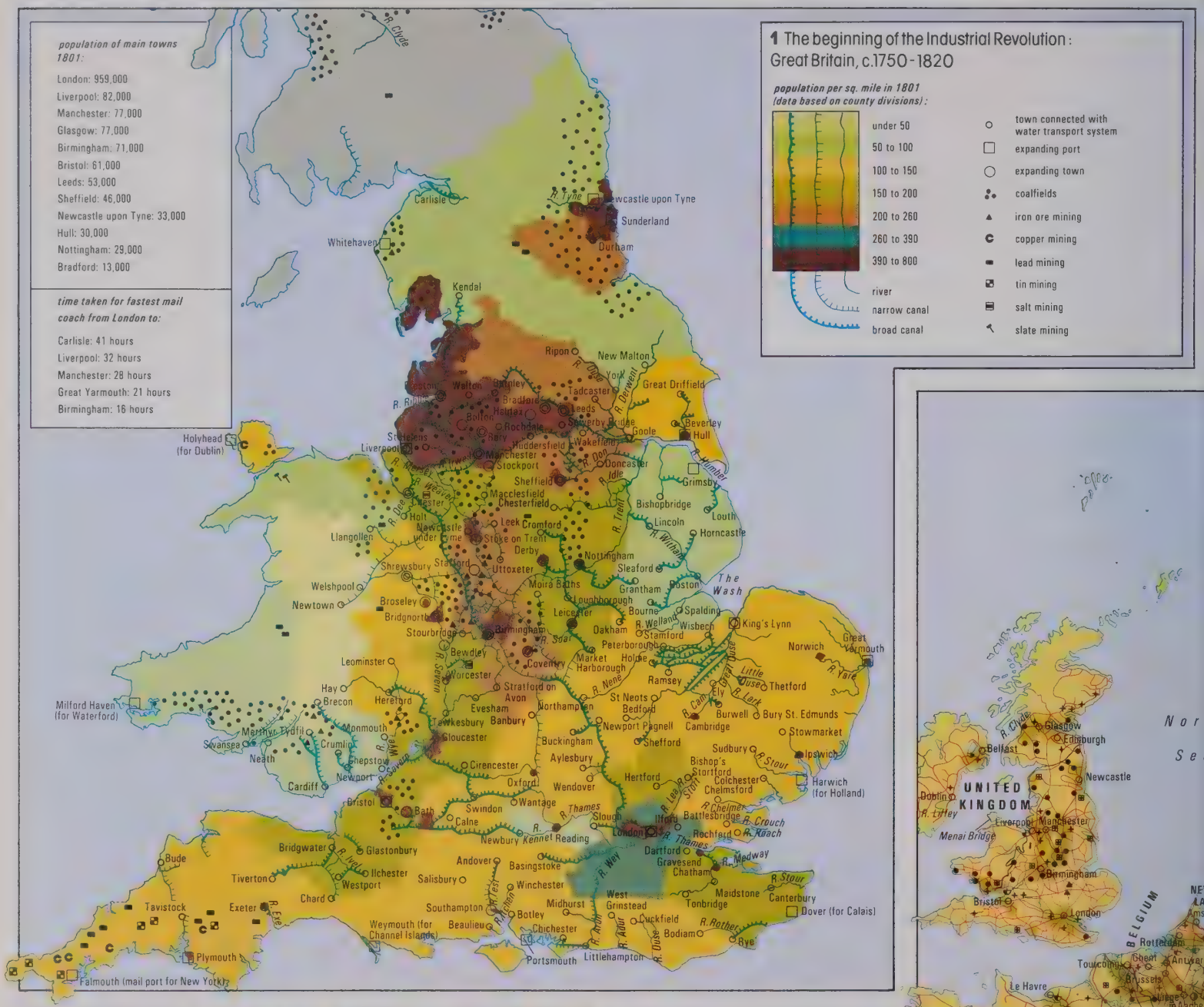
For most of the century there was virtually a subsistence economy in most republics. Brazil, with its coffee plantations based on slave labour, was an exception. Elsewhere the *hacendados* treated their estates more or less as self-supporting and self-sufficient, and had little interest in production for the market. Change only came after about 1880 when foreign investment, hitherto modest, increased rapidly (map 3). Even so, it was highly selective, concentrated mainly in Argentina, Brazil, Mexico and Chile. Except in Mexico, where the United States predominated, Britain had the lion's share, much of it in railways. The stimulus was undoubted, but it also shifted the economy sharply to the export of primary products. Argentina's 'revolution on the pampas' made it a main supplier of grain and meat; Chile was the world's leading producer of nitrates; Brazil exported coffee and rubber, and American food corporations invested heavily in the so-called 'banana republics.' The economic 'take off' also attracted a new wave of European, mainly Italian and Spanish, settlers, notably in Argentina, which greatly altered the population profile (map 2). Urbanisation increased apace, and with it came the beginning of a new urban and industrial proletariat and a middle class growing rich on the export trade. But unbalanced growth also produced new problems. The dictatorship of Porfirio Díaz (1877–1910) brought spectacular economic progress to Mexico, but the mass of the people were left in abject poverty. The result was the Mexican revolution of 1911, the harbinger of a new era in the history of Latin America.



1 Political development
boundary of Mexico 1824
Mexico 1867
1821 date of independent statehood
Republic of Colombia, 1819-30
United Provinces of Central America, 1823-38
later Brazilian acquisitions
areas affected by Mexican revolution from 1910
dispute between Ecuador and Peru
disputed area, Bolivia and Paraguay
caudillismo (military dictatorship)
revolutionary movements
constitutionalism
radical reformism
French territory
British territory
Dutch territory
Spanish territory
A AGUASCALIENTES
C CAMPECHE
G GUANAJUATO
H HIDALGO
ME MÉXICO
M MORELOS
N NUEVO LEÓN
P PUEBLA
Q QUERÉTARO
S SAN LUIS POTOSÍ
T TLAXCALA
V VERA CRUZ
UNITED STATES
CALIFORNIA
ceded to USA by Mexico 1848
UTAH
sold by Texas to USA 1853
NEW MEXICO
Texas 1850
TEXAS
Independent 1838-45
San Diego
sold to USA 1850
Rio Grande
SONORA
CHIHUAHUA
COAHUILA
LOWER CALIFORNIA
SINALOA
DURANGO
ZACATECAS
TAMAULIPAS
MEXICO 1821
Carranza 1913
Ten Years' War 1868-78
Liberal reform 1855-7
War of Reform 1857-60
Benito Juárez 1867-72
Pancho Villa 1914
Santa Ana 1834-55
Madero 1911
Zapata 1910
Morelos 1811-15
COLIMA
JALISCO
MICHOACAN
GUERRERO
OAXACA
TABASCO
CHIAPAS
YUCATAN
Caste war of Yucatán 1848
BRITISH HONDURAS
GUATEMALA 1838
HONDURAS 1838
EL SALVADOR 1838
NICARAGUA
MOSQUITO COAST 1860 to Nicaragua
COSTA RICA 1838
PANAMA 1903
violent constitutionalism
BAHAMA IS. (British 1783)
CUBA 1898
US Protectorate
JAMAICA British
REPUBLIC OF HAITI 1804
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC 1844
to Spain 1808-22
to Haiti 1822-44
PUERTO RICO Spanish
to USA 1898
VIRGIN IS.
ANTIGUA (east) British (west) Danish, to USA 1917
GUADELOUPE French
MARIE GALANTE French
DOMINICA British
MARTINIQUE French
ST LUCIA British
BARBADOS British
GRENADA British
TRINIDAD British
SABA Dutch
ST EUSTATIUS Dutch
ST CHRISTOPHER British
NEVIS British
ST VINCENT British
ARUBA Dutch
CURAÇAO Dutch
BONAIRE Dutch
Páez 1830-48
Guzmán Blanco 1870-88
Cartagena
Panama
Maracaibo
Mompox
Caracas
R. Orinoco
Angostura
VENEZUELA 1830
Georgetown
BRITISH GUIANA
DUTCH
FRENCH
Cayenne
to Britain 1904
Cabanagem 1835-40
Balaiada 1839
Confederation of Equator 1824
NEW GRANADA 1831
Antioquia
Bogotá
COLOMBIA 1886
Quito
ECUADOR 1803
Oriente
to Ecuador 1890
to Ecuador 1880
Guayaquil
García Moreno 1860-75
Iquitos
Tabatinga
Manaus
R. Amazon
RIO NEGRO (later Amazonas)
PARÁ
MARANHÃO
CEARÁ
RIO GRANDE DO NORTE
PARAÍBA
PIAUÍ
PERNAMBUCO
ALAGOAS
BAHIA
GOIÁS
MATO GROSSO
MINAS GERAIS
Minas Novas
Diamantina
ESPIRITO SANTO
RIO DE JANEIRO
Rio de Janeiro
SÃO PAULO
São Paulo
Santa Cruz
EMPIRE OF BRAZIL (kingdom 1815, empire 1822, republic 1889)
PERU
to Bolivia 1867
to Peru 1902
to Peru 1909
Castilla 1845-62
Lima
Callao
1821
Ayacucho
Cuzco
BOLIVIA
La Paz
1825
Tacna to Peru 1929
Arica
Potosí
Corumbá
Chilean gains
Melgarejo 1864-71
GRAN CHACO
Concepción
Jujuy
PARAGUAY
Asunción
1811
Ciudad Real
SANTA CATERINA
RIO GRANDE DO SUL
Sabinada 1837
Praieira 1848-9
Liberal Revolution 1842
Farroupilha Revolution 1835-45
URUGUAY 1828 part of Brazil 1816-28
Montevideo
Rio de la Plata
Batlle 1903-15
Rosas 1829-52
Córdoba
Mendoza
Rosario
San Luis
Valparaíso
Santiago
Constitución
Valdivia
Buenos Aires
ARGENTINA
1810
aristocratic presidentialism
conservative republic 1862-1910
War of the Desert 1880-81
Patagonia
FALKLAND IS. (ISLAS MALVINAS)
1770-1820 Spanish
1820-33 Argentine
1833 British
million people
3.0
2.5
2.0
1.5
1.0
0.5
racial profiles 1825:
Whites
Mestizos, Mulattos
Indians
Blacks
1854 date of abolition of slavery
unconquered Indians
Immigrants to Brazil: country of origin
ITALY
OTHERS
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
slave trade from Africa 1800-55 1.2 million
South Atlantic Ocean
PERU
BOLIVIA
Puno
L. Titicaca
La Paz
Moquegua
Tacna
Arica
Oruro
R. Camarones
TARAPACÁ (former Peruvian province)
Iquique
Pozo Almonte
La Central
Calama
ANTOFAGASTA (former Bolivian province)
Atacama Desert
Pacific Ocean
Taltal
Mirafiores
CHILE
ARGENTINA
4 The War of the Pacific, 1879-83
Chilean gains
nitrates

The Industrial Revolution in Europe, 1760-1914

The Industrial Revolution, which began in England in the reign of George III (1760–1820), was the catalyst of the modern world. Nevertheless the speed of change should not be exaggerated. Even in continental Europe its impact was limited before 1850 to a few industrial enclaves, and it was not until the last quarter of the nineteenth century – in the case of France, Italy and Russia only after 1890 – that the great surge forward occurred. Outside Europe, with the sole exception of the United States, its impact was delayed for much longer (page 108). Even in Germany 35 per cent of the population was engaged in agriculture in 1895, and most of eastern Europe (Poland, Romania, Bulgaria) and much of southern Europe (Spain, Greece, southern Italy) was virtually untouched by industry. Until 1900, when it began to be challenged by Germany and the United States, the United Kingdom was the workshop of the world, and its industrial strength, which enabled it to dominate world markets, accounts for its pre-eminence in the age of imperialism (page 100).



Many factors account for the precedence of Great Britain. It was not only that it was well endowed with coal, iron, and other basic materials; so were many other countries. It was also spared the almost continuous warfare which plagued continental Europe, particularly the French revolutionary and Napoleonic wars (pages 88, 90). Unlike France and Germany, where markets and trade were limited by a multiplicity of customs barriers and internal and external frontiers, Great Britain after the union of England and Scotland in 1707 was a single economic unit, where men and goods moved freely. It also enjoyed an advantageous position in Atlantic trade, from which capital flowed into industry. In an age of sailing ships, ports like Liverpool, Glasgow and Bristol had obvious advantages over Hamburg and Bremen. The English social structure was also favourable. In contrast to continental Europe, where most peasants were still tied to the soil (page 82), the early disappearance of serfdom in England meant that the surplus labour released by the enclosure of common land during the eighteenth century could move, without legal obstacles, to the growing industrial centres. Finally, England had a unique network of navigable rivers and canals (map 1), which was of inestimable importance before the railway age for moving both raw materials and finished goods.

In its earliest phase English manufacture had relied on water power; hence the location of the early cotton and woollen mills on the slopes of the Pennines. But essentially the Industrial Revolution, in the century to 1870, was a revolution of coal and iron. Its basis was the application of steam power to machinery, and a series of technical innovations – Watt's rotative engine (1782) and Cartwright's power loom (1792) among others – quickly demonstrated the superiority of steam-power driven machines. In continental Europe, apart from Belgium, where industrialisation proceeded rapidly after 1820, the use of steam power came more slowly. The famous German steel firm of Krupp, later to be a giant of German industry, was founded in 1810 in green fields outside Essen, where a stream provided water power; it had only 7 employees in 1826 and 122 in 1846. Here, and elsewhere, large-scale industry was held back by political fragmentation, lack of capital, and, above all, by poor communications, which severely limited markets. What changed this, above all else, was railway development, beginning in the 1830s. By 1860 the railway networks of Britain, Belgium and Germany were virtually complete, although in Austria-Hungary and Russia large-scale construction was only beginning (map 2). With their demand for rails, sleepers, engines and carriages, railways also provided immense impetus to heavy industry. A second factor was the dismantling of obstructions to trade. In France internal tariffs had been demolished in 1790 as part of the revolutionary reorganisation. In 1818 Prussia followed suit, setting up free trade between its provinces, followed by a Prussian Customs Union (1828) including other smaller German territories, and finally (1834) the German Customs Union, or *Zollverein*, comprising 17 states and some 26 million people (map 3). Here was a solid basis for the development of German industry.

A new period, sometimes called the Second Industrial Revolution, opened after 1870. The new German Empire, founded in 1871, was in the forefront. Coal and iron were still basic, and here Germany forged ahead, increasing its coal output from 38 million tons in 1871 to 279 million tons in 1913 and its iron output from 1.5 million tons to 15 million tons. But it was in the new branches of industry – steel, electricity and chemicals – that Germany outpaced all other nations. German steel production leapt from 1.5 million tons in 1880 to over 13 million tons in 1910, by which time Krupps was employing 70,000 men. Steel, electricity and chemicals were the index of the new industrial society, and at a time of growing international tension (page 116) Germany's headstart was bound to produce a defensive reaction among its rivals. The intensive industrialisation which occurred in France after 1895 and in northern Italy after 1905 represented a deliberate national effort not to be left behind. The same was true of the great upsurge of Russian industry after 1890, particularly the massive development of the iron and steel industry of the Donets basin (page 84). By now much of heavy industry was keyed to armaments. Industrialisation had changed the face of Europe by 1914; but it had also made it more dangerous and more explosive.

European imperialism
1815-1914

Between 1815 and 1914, under the impact of the Industrial Revolution, the character of European imperialism changed. Earlier the motivating force had been the search for the riches of the Orient, and the European stake in Asia and Africa was confined to trading stations and the strategic outposts necessary to protect the trade. In 1815, with the important exception of India, this was still the situation. But in the nineteenth century two new factors came into play. The first was the enforced opening of the world – Turkey and Egypt (1838), Persia (1841), China (1842), even Japan (1858) – to European, particularly British, commerce; in short, the breaking down of barriers to European penetration. The second, setting in around 1880, when a new phase of the Industrial Revolution got under way (page 98), was the search for the raw materials without which industry, in its new form, could not exist. Tin and rubber from Malaya, nickel from Canada, copper from Australia and South America were now the sinews of European industry; and so the scramble for natural resources began, providing a new impetus for colonial expansion. Between 1880 and 1914 Europe added over 8½ million square miles, or one-fifth of the land area of the globe, to its overseas colonial possessions.

Nevertheless no clear line divides the period before and the period after 1880. Criticism of imperialism was certainly strong in the first half of the century. Free traders of the so-called 'Manchester School' argued cogently that empire was unnecessary, even detrimental, to commerce, and the burgeoning trade with the ex-colonial countries of North and South America seemed to prove their point. Nevertheless imperial expansion was continuous after 1815. Both Great Britain and France – particularly France, which had lost its first empire in 1815 and was determined to constitute a new empire – steadily advanced (map 1). The French conquered Algeria in the 1830s, annexed Tahiti and the Marquesas in the 1840s, expanded their colony in Senegal in the 1850s, and began the conquest of Indo-China in 1859. Great Britain, which had retained the Cape of Good Hope, the maritime provinces of Ceylon and other strategically important footholds (Malta, Mauritius, the Seychelles) in 1815, also continued to expand. Fearing a French challenge, it claimed sovereignty over Australia and New Zealand (page 112). It built up its power in India (page 104), acquired Singapore (1819), Malacca (1824), Hong Kong (1842), Natal (1843), Lower Burma (1852) and Lagos (1861). Many of these acquisitions were defensive reactions against France; most were intended to secure its position in India which, with its army of 150–200,000, made Britain the strongest territorial power in the east. Even so, except for India, imperialism still only touched the outer fringes of Asia and Africa. Even the Russian empire, which by 1886 was to engross much of central Asia (page 84), still only affected the periphery.

After 1880 a fundamental change came about. Its causes were partly economic, but still more important were the rivalries of the European powers, each of which feared that its competitors would steal a march on it. Comparison of maps 1 and 2 points out the difference. Even as late as 1870 colonial penetration was marginal. By 1914 the European powers had engrossed nine-tenths of Africa and a large part of Asia. Between 1871 and 1914 the French empire grew by nearly 4 million square miles and 47 million people, mainly in north and west Africa and Indo-China, but also in the Pacific islands and Madagascar. But a significant factor was the entry of new claimants, particularly Germany and Italy, challenging the old imperial powers. Germany acquired an empire of 1 million square miles and 14 million colonial subjects in South-West Africa, Togoland, the Cameroons, Tanganyika and the Pacific Islands. Italy obtained Tripoli and Libya, Eritrea and Italian Somaliland, but failed in 1896 to conquer Abyssinia. But the greatest gains of all were made by Great Britain, which secured control over Nigeria, Kenya, Uganda, Northern and Southern Rhodesia, Egypt and the Sudan, as well as areas in the Pacific including Fiji and parts of Borneo and New Guinea. The keystone of the British empire was India, and its acquisitions were made with a view to bolstering British control over access to India and the Indian Ocean via the Suez Canal and East Africa, but also via Singapore and the south Pacific (map 3). So long as it was assured of control of the Indian Ocean, the British imperial position was secure.

In retrospect, the fragility of the European empires so hastily assembled between 1884 and 1914, is obvious. None of the imperial powers had the resources to govern them adequately. European imperialism was more ephemeral than anyone, at the close of the nineteenth century, could have believed; and yet it left an indelible impression on the peoples of Asia and Africa, propelling them willingly or unwillingly into the twentieth century.

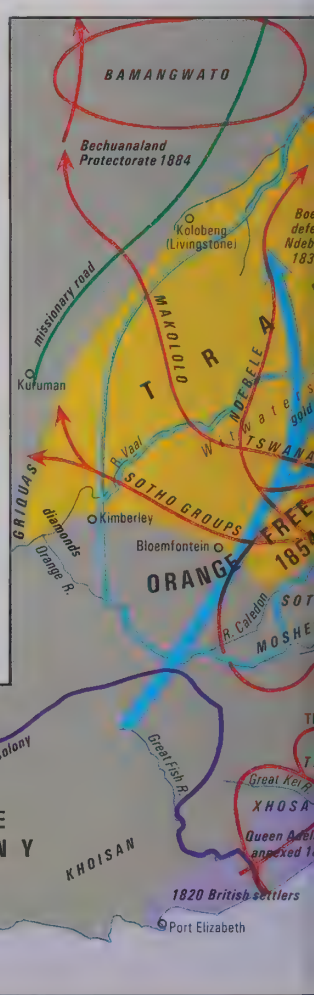
1 Colonial expansion, 1815 - 70
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
CANADIAN CONFEDERATION
USA
provinces of Canadian Confederation:
Q. Quebec
N.B. New Brunswick
N.S. Nova Scotia
B.C. British Columbia
M. Manitoba
O. Ontario
CHINA
INDIA
treaty ports:
S Shanghai
N Ningpo
F Foochow
A Amoy
C. Canton
Macao
Hong Kong 1842
PHILIPPINES (Spanish)
CEYLON 1815
COCHIN CHINA
Malacca
Singapore
LABUAN 1846
BORNEO
SUMATRA
JAVA
TIMOR
NEW GUINEA
Pacific Ocean
Indian Ocean
ALGERIA 1830
Suez Canal opened 1869
SENEGAL 1854–65
GAMBIA
PORTUGUESE GUINEA
SIERRA LEONE
GOLD COAST
Lagos 1861
SPANISH GUINEA
GABON
ADEN 1839
OBOCK
Ascension I.
St. Helena
Seychelles 1815
MOZAMBIQUE
Mauritius 1815
Reunion
CAPE COLONY
NATAL
MEXICO 1821
CUBA (Spanish)
CENT. AMERICAN REPUBLICS 1821
VENEZUELA 1830
COLOMBIA 1830
ECUADOR 1830
PERU 1821
BRAZIL 1822
B. 1825
P. 1811
CHILE 1818
URUGUAY 1828
ARGENTINA 1816
abbreviations:
P. PARAGUAY
B. BOLIVIA
Tahiti 1842
Falkland Is (Islas Malvinas) British 1833
AUSTRALIA
WESTERN AUSTRALIA
QUEENSLAND
S. AUST.
N.S.W.
VICTORIA
TASMANIA
NEW ZEALAND 1840
NEW C 1853
major raw materials exported to Europe:
grain
meat
tea
cane sugar
dairy produce
cotton
jute
silk
rubber
veg. oil
copra
wool
diamonds
gold
silver
tin
copper
nitrates
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
MONGOLIA
MANCHURIA
C H I N A
TURKESTAN 1873 1884-5
1895
Weihaiwei 1898
Port Arthur
Tsingtao
KOREA (to Japan 1910)
JAPAN
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
MALTA
CYPRUS (leased by UK 1878)
PERSIA
KUWAIT
TIBET
Shanghai
Ningpo
Foochow
Amoy
FORMOSA (to Japan 1895)
Canton
Pescadores
Hong Kong (UK)
Suez Canal opened 1869
LIBYA 1912
EGYPT 1882
Ottoman Dominions under British control
ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN 1898
ERITREA 1889
ARABIA
OMAN
INDIA
Diu (Portuguese)
Goa (Portuguese)
Hyderabad
Andaman Islands
Pondicherry
Karikal
Socotra 1876
Aden
OBOCK 1884–8
ABYSSINIA
ITALIAN SOMALILAND 1889
BRITISH SOMALILAND 1884
BURMA 1886
TONKIN
LAOS
ANNAM
SIAM
Macao (Portuguese)
PHILIPPINES (to USA 1898)
INDO-CHINA 1859-93
CAMBODIA
Marianas (Ladrones) 1899
Guam (to USA 1898)
Marshall Is. 1888
Caroline Is. 1899
Pacific Islands (to Germany)
Nicobar Islands
Penang
MALAYA 1875-95
SARAWAK 1888
BRUNEI 1881
Singapore
DUTCH BORNEO
SUMATRA
Maldives
CEYLON
BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO 1885
NEW GUINEA
PAPUA (to Australia 1906)
Nauru
Gilbert Is. 1892
Ocean I.
Solomon Is 1893
Ellice Is. 1886
New Hebrides 1906
NEW CALEDONIA
Norfolk Island
Fiji 1874
Tonga 1900
Samoa 1888-99 (to Germany) (to UK)
(to USA)
Seychelles
Chagos Archipelago
Cocos Islands
Comoro Is.
Mauritius
Réunion
MADAGASCAR 1895–6
Zanzibar 1890
GERMAN EAST AFRICA TANGANYIKA 1886
BRITISH EAST AFRICA (KENYA) 1886
UGANDA
RUANDA URUNDI
CONGO FREE STATE 1885
BELGIAN CONGO 1908
PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA
NORTH RHODESIA 1891
SOUTH RHODESIA 1890
BECHUANALAND 1884–8
GERMAN SOUTH WEST AFRICA 1884
ANGOLA
SWAZILAND 1907
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA 1910
BASUTOLAND 1871
COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA
TASMANIA
NEW ZEALAND
2 The colonial empires in 1914
(for 1815-70 see inset maps above)
colonial powers:
British
French
German
Portuguese
Ottoman
Dutch
Italian
Spanish
Belgian
Russian
1883 date of European control
1822 date of independence
Princely states of India
spheres of influence
proposed spheres of influence
major sea routes

Nineteenth century Africa

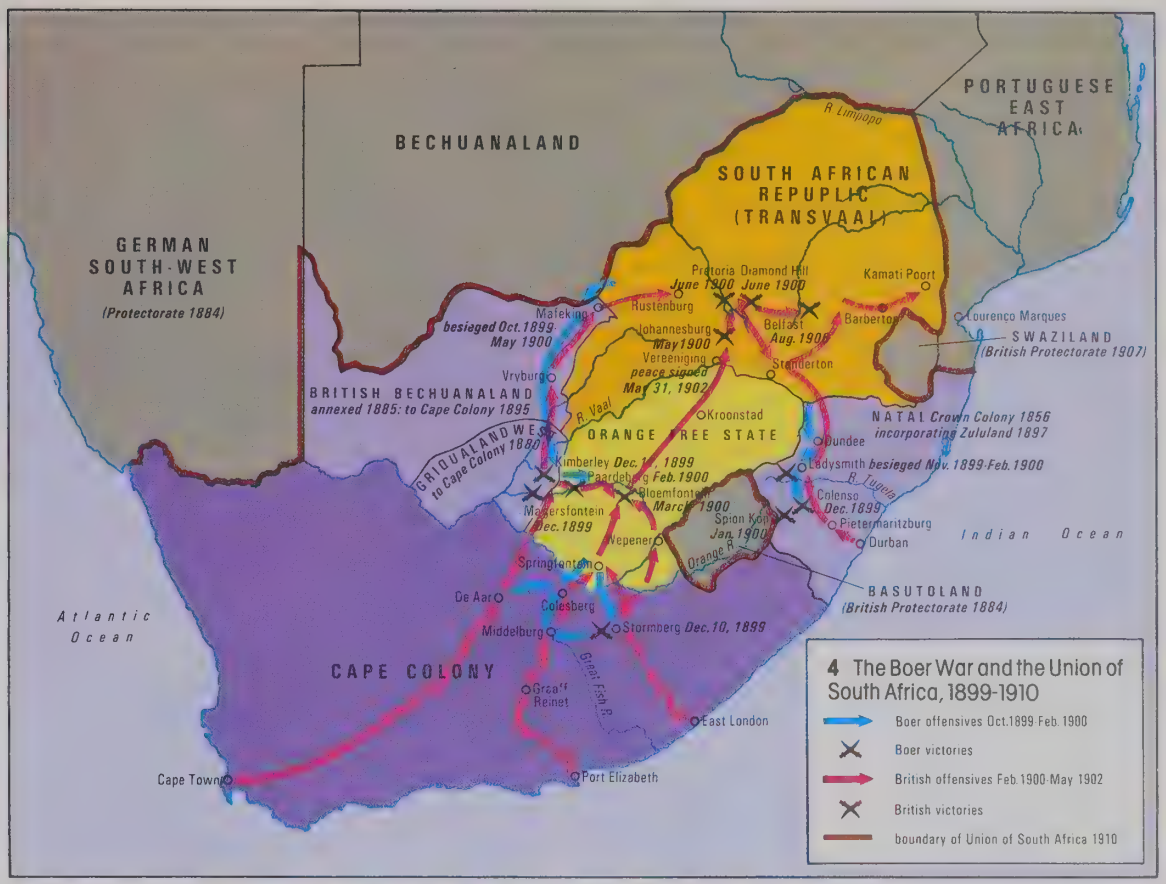
Although European exploration began in the eighteenth century (map 1), its impact on Africa was limited until after 1870, except in the far south where Dutch settlers, or Boers, in Cape Colony, who had been brought under British rule in 1806, moved north in the Great Trek (1835) in search of land and freedom, and founded settlements which eventually became the republics of the Orange Free State and Transvaal (map 2). The only other area of European settlement was Algeria, conquered by France between 1830 and 1847 after fierce resistance under Abd al Kadir. Nevertheless this was a period of great change and instability in Africa. In the north-east the dominating fact was the advance of Egypt under Mohammed Ali, who conquered northern Sudan in 1820, founded Khartoum as its capital in 1830, and inaugurated the attempt to build a great Egyptian empire reaching the length of the Nile and east to the Horn of Africa. In the north-west a great Muslim religious revival, beginning around 1804 under Uthman dan Fodio, carried the Fulani south into Hausaland, where they founded the Sultanate of Sokoto. Later, another empire was carved out further west, between the Ivory Coast and the Upper Niger, by a Mandingo Muslim leader, Samory. In the south, the outstanding event was the rise of the Zulus, which resulted in a great political and demographic revolution (the so-called *Mfecane* or 'time of troubles'), as the local tribes were driven west and north into Rhodesia, Malawi and Zambia.

This was the situation when the European 'scramble for Africa' got under way after 1882 (page 100), and the countries named above were leaders of African resistance (map 3). The Zulus, hard pressed between British and Boers after the British annexation of Natal (1845), held out fiercely until the war of 1879–81, when their country was annexed (map 2). Resistance elsewhere was equally strong. Samory was only defeated by the French in 1898; Sokoto only fell to the British in 1903. In the north the British established a *de facto* protectorate over a bankrupt Egypt after 1882 (turned into a full-scale protectorate in 1914); but they were only able to secure control of the Sudan in 1898 after the slaughter of some 20,000 Sudanese. Nowhere was occupation unchallenged, as the great Herero and Maji-Maji revolts of 1904–6 against German colonialism showed. But the only lasting success was the Ethiopian defeat of Italy at Adowa in 1896. Morocco kept a precarious independence until 1912 before being divided between France and Spain, and Libya and Cyrenaica were occupied by Italy in the same year. By 1914 the European powers were in full control (map 5). Apart from Ethiopia, only Liberia could claim independence.

The position of the Boer republics in the south was different. Transvaal also had been annexed by Great Britain in 1877 and then restored to independence in 1881. But the discovery of diamonds at Kimberley and of gold on the Witwatersrand (1886) sealed their fate. The entry of foreign speculators (*Uitlanders*) sparked Boer hostility, and when an attempt by Cecil Rhodes (Prime Minister of Cape Colony, 1890–96) to stage a take-over failed dismally (Jameson Raid, 1895), the outcome was the Boer War (1899–1902), in which, after initial Boer successes, ruthless British suppression forced the Boers to capitulate (map 4). Nevertheless the Afrikaners secured favourable terms after the Peace of Vereeniging (May 31, 1902), including the use of their own language and the exclusion of blacks from the franchise, and this compromise made possible the formation (1910) of the Union of South Africa as a dominion of the British Commonwealth. It was nevertheless a betrayal of black Africans by Britain which led step by step to the policy of *Apartheid* (1948) and to the radical conflicts which bedevilled South Africa after the rest of the continent had won its independence.



EGYPT
Ottoman dominion under British control 1882
ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN
ERITREA
FRENCH SOMALILAND
BRITISH SOMALILAND
ETHIOPIA
ITALIAN SOMALILAND
UGANDA
BRITISH EAST AFRICA (KENYA)
GERMAN EAST AFRICA
Indian Ocean
NYASALAND
RHODESIA
SOUTHERN RHODESIA
MOZAMBIQUE
MADAGASCAR
SWAZILAND
BASUTOLAND


BECHUANALAND
PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA
R. Limpopo
SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC (TRANSVAAL)
GERMAN SOUTH-WEST AFRICA
(Protectorate 1884)
Pretoria Diamond Hill June 1900 June 1900
Kamati Poort
Rustenburg
Barberton
Lourenco Marques
besieged Oct. 1899 May 1900
Mafeking
Johannesburg May 1900
Belfast Aug. 1900
SWAZILAND (British Protectorate 1907)
Vereeniging peace signed May 31, 1902
Standerton
Vryburg
BRITISH BECHUANALAND annexed 1885: to Cape Colony 1895
R. Vaal
Kroonstad
ORANGE FREE STATE
NATAL Crown Colony 1856 incorporating Zululand 1897
GRIQUALAND WEST to Cape Colony 1880
Kimberley Dec. 15, 1899
Paardeberg Feb. 1900
Bloemfontein March 1900
Ladysmith besieged Nov. 1899-Feb. 1900
R. Tugela
Colenso Dec. 1899
Pietermaritzburg
Durban
Indian Ocean
Magersfontein Dec. 1899
Spion Kop Jan. 1900
Vepener
Springfontein
Orange R.
BASUTOLAND (British Protectorate 1884)
Atlantic Ocean
De Aar
Colesberg
Middelburg
Stormberg Dec. 10, 1899
CAPE COLONY
Great Fish R.
Graaff Reinet
East London
Cape Town
Port Elizabeth
4 The Boer War and the Union of South Africa, 1899-1910
Boer offensives Oct.1899-Feb.1900
Boer victories
British offensives Feb.1900-May 1902
British victories
boundary of Union of South Africa 1910

R. Limpopo
ZULULAND annexed by Britain 1879-81
annexed by Britain 1877-81
Boers defeat British 1881
Majuba Hill
R. Buffalo
R. Tugela
Ulundi 1881
Isandhlwana 1879
annexed by Britain 1845 (Boers migrated here in 1830s, then left after British annexation)
BASUTOLAND
Port Natal
annexed by Cape 1871-94 - thereafter administered by Britain
PONDO
annexed by Cape 1871-94
Kaffir War 1877-78
Province abandoned 1836
Indian Ocean
2 South Africa 1818-81
African nations or tribal groups
ZULU African peoples
African migrations
land partially emptied by African migrations
the Great Trek Boer migration
Boer Republics
battles of Zulu Wars:
British victories
Zulu victory

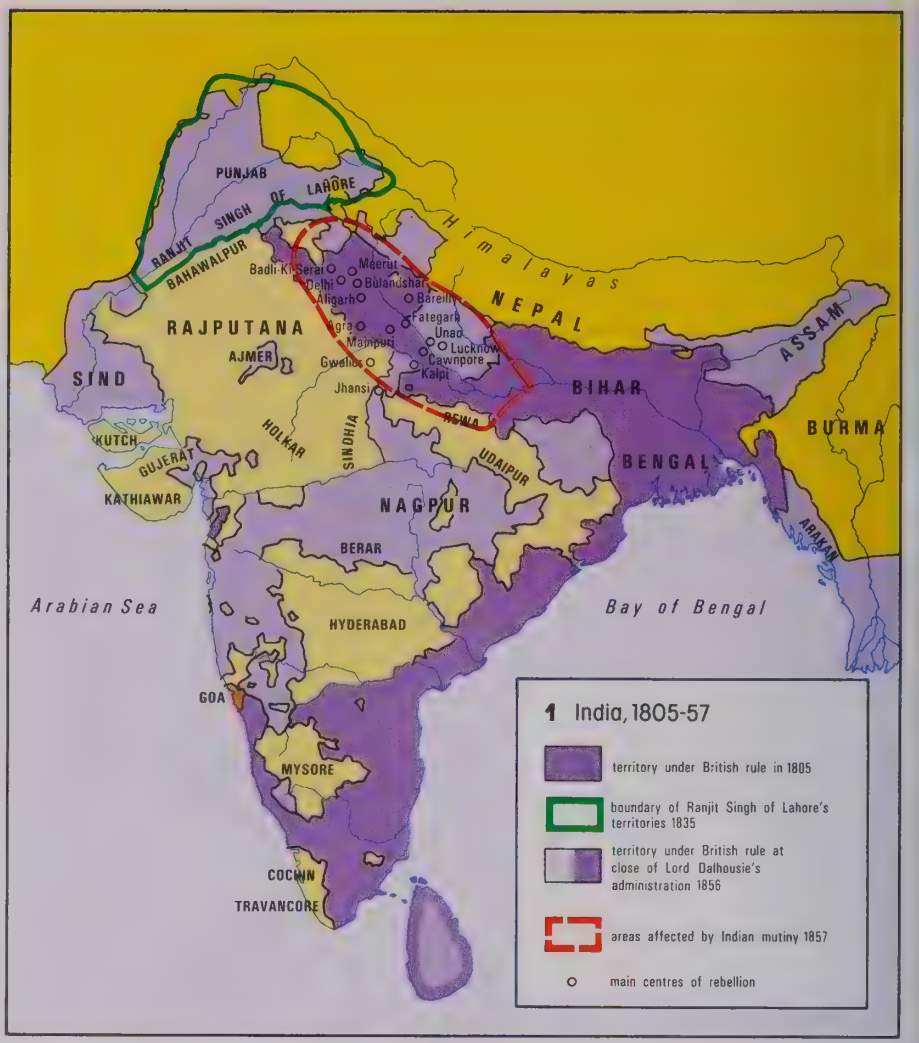
Mediterranean Sea
Tangier
International Zone 1923
Algiers 1830 (French occupation)
Tunis
ALGERIA 1870
TUNIS
Fez
MOROCCO 1912 French protectorate
Marrakesh
Agadir
Atlas Mts
TRIPOLITANIA
Tripoli 1911
Benghazi 1912
CYRENAICA
Alexandria
Cairo
Canary Islands
SPANISH SAHARA 1912
Ghadames
LIBYA
In Salah 1901 (French)
FEZZAN
EGYPT
ARABIA
Sahara Desert
RIO DE ORO 1885
Taoudenni 1906 (French occupation)
Tamanrasset 1902 (French)
Red Sea
R. Nile
Mahdist State in the Sudan 1881-98
SUDAN
Sudan — Anglo-Egyptian Condominium established 1899
Omdurman
Khartoum
Massawa
Aden (British)
Bilma
Sudan
Timbuktu 1894
Empire of Ahadu Sefu (son of al-Hajj Umar)
St. Louis
R. Senegal
SENEGAL
Dakar
Kayes
Gao
R. Niger
NIGER
Agadès
Zinder 1899
FRENCH SUDAN
Bamako 1883
Ségou
Sokoto 1903 (British)
Lake Chad
Port Lamy
GAMBIA
FOUTA DJALLON 1887-96
UPPER VOLTA
Ouagadougou 1896
Say 1896
NIGERIA
Zaria
Kano 1902
RABIH'S DOMAIN
Adowa 1896
Italian invasion forestalled
Djibouti
Berbera
ETHIOPIA
SHOA
Addis Ababa
Ethiopian expansion under Emperor Menelik
Fashoda 1898 (British)
SUDAN KINGDOMS
Gondokoro
ITALIAN SOMALILAND 1889-1892
Mogadishu
Conakry
FRENCH GUINEA
Samory's Empire
Freetown
SIERRA LEONE
Monrovia
LIBERIA
Kumasi 1896
IVORY COAST 1891
GOLD COAST 1874
TOGO
DAHOMEY
Ibadan
ILORIN
NUPE
Lokoja 1885
YORUBA
Accra
Lagos
Northern Nigeria occupied by Royal Niger Company
SOKOTO
CAMEROONS
Douala 1884
Fernando Po (Spanish)
Principe (Portuguese)
São Tomé (Portuguese)
RIO MUNI
GABON
FRENCH CONGO
Atlantic Ocean
CONGO FREE STATE
King Leopold's Congo Free State (became Belgian Congo in 1908)
UGANDA 1894
BRITISH EAST AFRICA (KENYA)
Kampala 1890
Lake Victoria
Nairobi
Imperial British East African Company
GERMAN EAST AFRICA
Mombasa
TIPPU TIB'S DOMAIN
Lake Tanganyika
Zanzibar (British 1890)
Dar es Salaam 1885 German occupation
Cabinda
R. Congo
Luanda
KATANGA
Lake Nyasa
Indian Ocean
ANGOLA
Benguela
British Central Africa (Nyasaland) Protectorate 1891
Moçâmedes
NORTHERN RHODESIA
Zomba
Mozambique
R. Zambezi
Salisbury
Quelimane
Tamatava
Tananarive
SOUTHERN RHODESIA
Beira
MADAGASCAR
Merina Kingdom
Swakopmund
GERMAN SOUTH WEST AFRICA
Walvis Bay (British) 1878
Rhodes' British South Africa Company Pioneer Column 1890
MOZAMBIQUE
TRANSVAAL
Pretoria
Johannesburg
Delagoa Bay
Lüderitz
BRITISH BECHUANALAND
R. Vaal
Orange R.
ORANGE FREE STATE
NATAL
Durban
Kimberley
CAPE COLONY
East London
Cape Town
Port Elizabeth
3 European penetration after 1880
French colonies or settlements 1880
French penetration
British colonies or settlements 1880
British penetration
Portuguese colonies or settlements 1880
Portuguese penetration
German penetration
Italian penetration
Spanish penetration
Belgian penetration
anti-colonial resistance

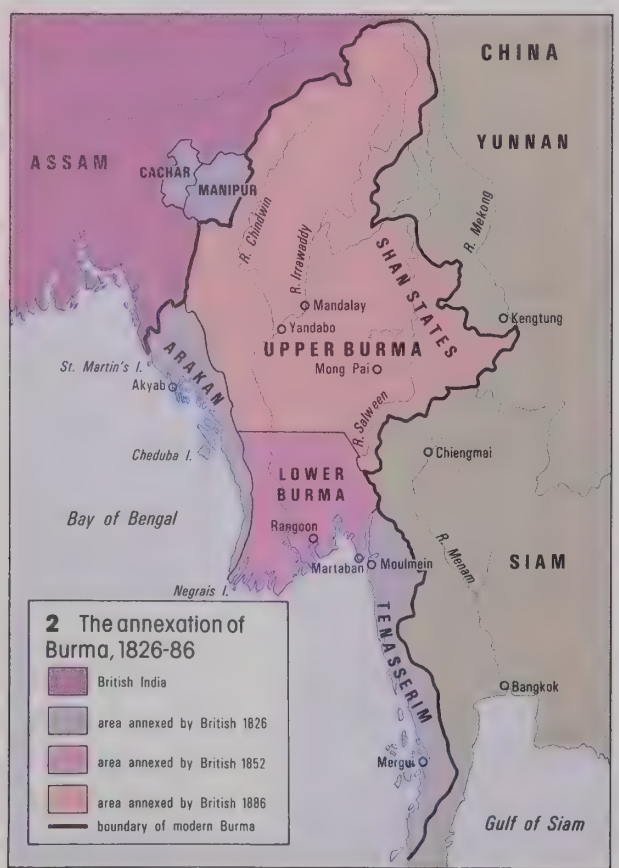
India under British rule, 1805-1947

By 1805 the hegemony of the English East India Company in the Indian sub-continent was an established fact. With the conquest of Sind (1843) and the Sikh kingdom of the Punjab (1849) its dominion became co-terminous with the country's natural frontier in the north-west, while in the north a war with Nepal (1814–16) extended it to the Himalayan foothills (map 1). To the east the British clashed with the Burmese empire and in 1826 and 1852 annexed most of its territories, including Assam. Upper Burma itself was brought under British rule in 1886 (map 2). Within India Dalhousie's Doctrine of Lapse led to the absorption of dependent states like Oudh and several Maratha kingdoms into the directly administered territories. Not surprisingly, this policy provoked disaffection among dispossessed rulers and the rural propertied classes, and the pent-up discontent found a violent outlet in the rebellion of 1857. Beginning as a mutiny of the Company's Indian sepoys, the revolt soon involved princes, landlords and peasants throughout northern India, but the loyalty of the Sikhs and the passivity of the Deccan and southern India enabled the British to crush it after fourteen months of bitter fighting.

The mutiny was a watershed in the history of British India. It discredited the Company and in 1858 the British government assumed direct control, though the autonomy of the Indian princes was respected. The impetus to economic development was immediate. First-class roads were built, totalling 57,000 miles by 1927, but it was the railways, planned by Dalhousie in 1853, which opened the country and made possible the exploitation of raw materials and the profitable introduction of export crops, such as tea. Between 1869 and 1929 India's foreign trade increased sevenfold. How far this benefited the rural masses is a moot question; but the development of modern industries brought into existence an Indian entrepreneurial class. After 1921, when protective tariffs were introduced, industrial expansion made further progress (map 3).

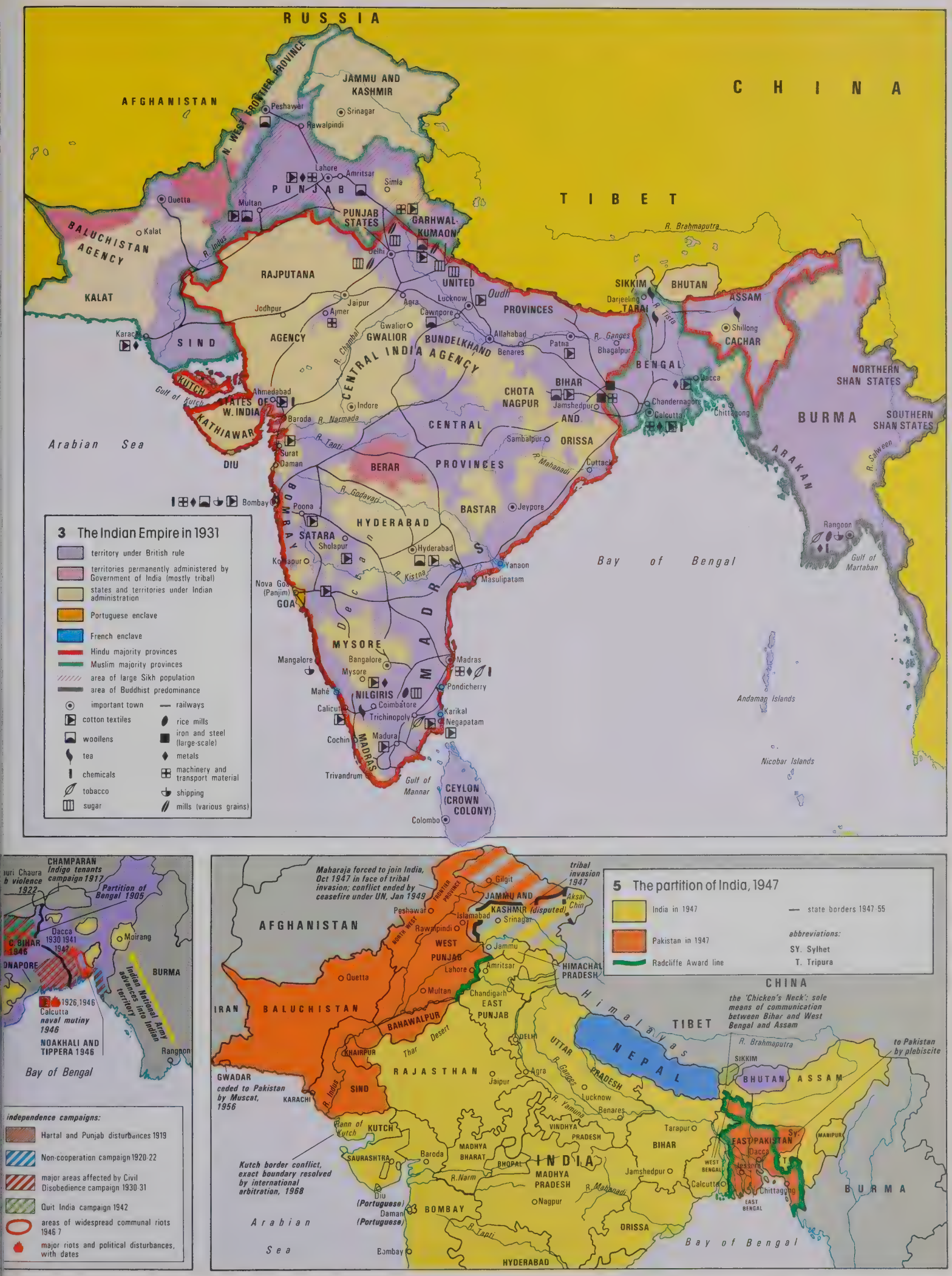
With the rise of a new middle class, partly through industry but more through the recruitment of educated Indians into the colonial administration, came a reawakened political consciousness. The Indian National Congress (1885) accepted British rule, though in 1905 an extremist wing under Bal Gangadhar Tilak turned to violence. But it was only after 1919 that Congress, under Gandhi's leadership, fought actively for Home Rule and, after 1929, for independence (map 4). Gandhi's civil disobedience campaigns galvanised the Indian masses; but Congress's claim to represent all Indians, Hindu and Muslim alike, alienated the Muslim minority and led to conflicts which resulted in 1947 in partition (map 5). Faced by mounting unrest and the naval mutiny of 1946, the Labour government in England realised that a transfer of power could not be delayed; but the event that forced its hand was the communal rioting of 1946–47. Plans for partition were hastily drawn up. But the boundary award in Kashmir, Punjab and Bengal resulted in large-scale disturbances in which some 500,000 lost their lives, and left a tense situation which erupted in the India-Pakistan war of 1965.





India's Road to Independence (right)

1885 creation of Indian National Congress
1906 Muslim League formed
1915 Gandhi returns to India. Following death of Gokhale (1915) and Tilak (1920) emerges as leader of Congress
1916 Lucknow Pact: Congress and Muslim League agree to co-operate in demand for home rule (*swaraj*)
1917 Montagu Declaration: Britain's goal is 'responsible government for India as an integral part of the British Empire.' But
1919 Government of India Act leaves central administration and police powers in hands of Viceroy
1919 Amritsar Massacre: troops fire on demonstrators and kill 379 Indians
1920 Khilafat Committee of Hindus and Muslims adopts Gandhi's programme of peaceful non-cooperation (*satyagraha*)
1920 First Civil Disobedience campaign
1922 after violence at Chauri Chaura and Moplah rising in South India
1922–29 Gandhi (in prison 1922–24) withdraws from active politics
1928 Revival of political activity; rise of Jawaharlal Nehru (President of Lahore Congress, 1929). Widening rift between Congress and Muslim League
1929 Lahore Congress demands immediate independence
1930 Gandhi's march to the sea opens Second Civil Disobedience campaign, 90,000 arrests
1930–32 Round Table Conference breaks down over question of separate electorates for Muslims, Sikhs and Untouchables
1935 Government of India Act. Denounced by Nehru as 'satanic', but main provisions accepted by Bombay Congress which agrees to participate in provincial elections
1937 Congress wins 8 out of 11 provinces in elections, but at cost of alienating Muslims
1938 Jinnah reorganises Muslim League
1939 resignation of Congress ministries after Viceroy declares war without consulting Indian leaders
1940 Lahore resolution of Muslim League in favour of independent Pakistan
1942 Congress rejects British offer of Dominion Status after war. Gandhi launches 'Quit India' campaign. 'August Revolt' suppressed and Congress leaders imprisoned
1946 Second British Cabinet Mission fails. Communal violence in Calcutta, E. Bengal, Bihar and Punjab; half-million deaths
1947 partition and independence


RUSSIA
CHINA
TIBET
AFGHANISTAN
JAMMU AND KASHMIR
N. WEST FRONTIER PROVINCE
Peshawar
Srinagar
Rawalpindi
Lahore
Amritsar
Simla
PUNJAB
Quetta
Multan
PUNJAB STATES
GARHWAL-KUMAON
Delhi
BALUCHISTAN AGENCY
Kalat
R. Indus
RAJPUTANA
UNITED PROVINCES
Oudh
SIKKIM
BHUTAN
Darjeeling TARAI
R. Tista
ASSAM
Shillong
CACHAR
KALAT
Jodhpur
Jaipur
Agra
Lucknow
Cawnpore
Ajmer
Gwalior
R. Chambal
SIND
AGENCY
GWALIOR
BUNDELKHAND
Allahabad
Benares
Patna
R. Ganges
Bhagalpur
BENGAL
Karachi
CENTRAL INDIA AGENCY
Dacca
NORTHERN SHAN STATES
KUTCH
Gulf of Kutch
STATES OF W. INDIA
Ahmedabad
Indore
CHOTA NAGPUR AND ORISSA PROVINCES
BIHAR
Jamshedpur
Chandernagore
Calcutta
Chittagong
BURMA
SOUTHERN SHAN STATES
Arabian Sea
KATHIAWAR
Baroda
R. Narmada
CENTRAL PROVINCES
Sambalpur
R. Mahanadi
Cuttack
ARAKAN
R. Salween
Surat
R. Tapti
DIU
Daman
BERAR
BOMBAY
Bombay
Poona
R. Godavari
BASTAR
Jeypore
HYDERABAD
Rangoon
SATARA
Sholapur
Hyderabad
Kolhapur
Yanaon
Masulipatam
Bay of Bengal
Gulf of Martaban
Nova Goa (Panjim)
GOA
Deccan
MADRAS
MYSORE
Bangalore
Madras
Mangalore
Mysore
Pondicherry
Mahé
NILGIRIS
Coimbatore
Calicut
Trichinopoly
Karikal
Negapatam
Cochin
Madura
Andaman Islands
Nicobar Islands
Trivandrum
Gulf of Mannar
CEYLON (CROWN COLONY)
Colombo
3 The Indian Empire in 1931
territory under British rule
territories permanently administered by Government of India (mostly tribal)
states and territories under Indian administration
Portuguese enclave
French enclave
Hindu majority provinces
Muslim majority provinces
area of large Sikh population
area of Buddhist predominance
important town
railways
cotton textiles
rice mills
woollens
iron and steel (large-scale)
tea
metals
chemicals
machinery and transport material
tobacco
shipping
sugar
mills (various grains)

CHAMPARAN Indigo tenants campaign 1917
Partition of Bengal 1905
Dacca 1930 1941 1947
C. BIHAR 1946
DNAPORE
Moirang
BURMA
Indian National Army advances into Indian territory
1926, 1946 Calcutta naval mutiny 1946
NOAKHALI AND TIPPERA 1946
Rangoon
Bay of Bengal
independence campaigns:
Hartal and Punjab disturbances 1919
Non-cooperation campaign 1920-22
major areas affected by Civil Disobedience campaign 1930-31
Quit India campaign 1942
areas of widespread communal riots 1946-7
major riots and political disturbances, with dates

Maharaja forced to join India, Oct 1947 in face of tribal invasion; conflict ended by ceasefire under UN, Jan 1949
tribal invasion 1947
Gilgit
FRONTIER PROVINCE
JAMMU AND KASHMIR (disputed)
Aksai Chin
Peshawar
Islamabad
Srinagar
AFGHANISTAN
NORTH WEST
Rawalpindi
WEST PUNJAB
Jammu
Amritsar
HIMACHAL PRADESH
Lahore
Quetta
Multan
Chandigarh
EAST PUNJAB
IRAN
BALUCHISTAN
BAHAWALPUR
Desert
Thar
DELHI
UTTAR PRADESH
TIBET
Himalayas
NEPAL
CHINA
the 'Chicken's Neck': sole means of communication between Bihar and West Bengal and Assam
R. Brahmaputra
to Pakistan by plebiscite
KHAIRPUR
RAJASTHAN
Agra
Jaipur
R. Ganges
SIKKIM
BHUTAN
ASSAM
GWADAR ceded to Pakistan by Muscat, 1956
KARACHI
SIND
R. Indus
Lucknow
R. Yamuna
Benares
Rann of Kutch
KUTCH
VINDHYA PRADESH
Tarapur
BIHAR
EAST PAKISTAN
Sy.
MANIPUR
SAURASHTRA
Baroda
MADHYA BHARAT
BHOPAL
INDIA
WEST BENGAL
Dacca
Jessore
T.
Kutch border conflict, exact boundary resolved by international arbitration, 1968
R. Narm
MADHYA PRADESH
Jamshedpur
Calcutta
Chittagong
BURMA
Diu (Portuguese)
Daman (Portuguese)
BOMBAY
Nagpur
R. Mahanadi
EAST BENGAL
Arabian Sea
R. Tapti
ORISSA
Bay of Bengal
Bombay
HYDERABAD
5 The partition of India, 1947
India in 1947
Pakistan in 1947
Radcliffe Award line
state borders 1947-55
abbreviations:
SY. Sylhet
T. Tripura

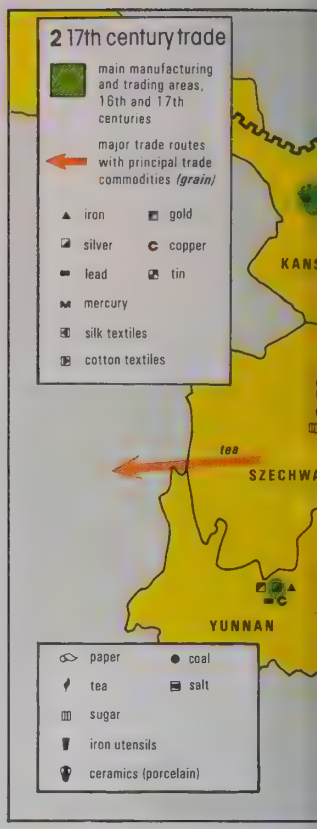
China under the Ch'ing Dynasty, 1644-1911

A new era in Chinese history opened in 1644 when the Ming dynasty, beset for a century by Mongol invasions, Japanese raids and civil war, was displaced by a line of foreign, Manchurian, emperors which ruled China until 1911. The Ch'ing, or Manchu, dynasty was resisted in south China for half a century but it quickly established good relations with the dominant Chinese gentry (*shen-chin*) and with its support began a successful policy of territorial expansion which went on until late in the eighteenth century (map 1).

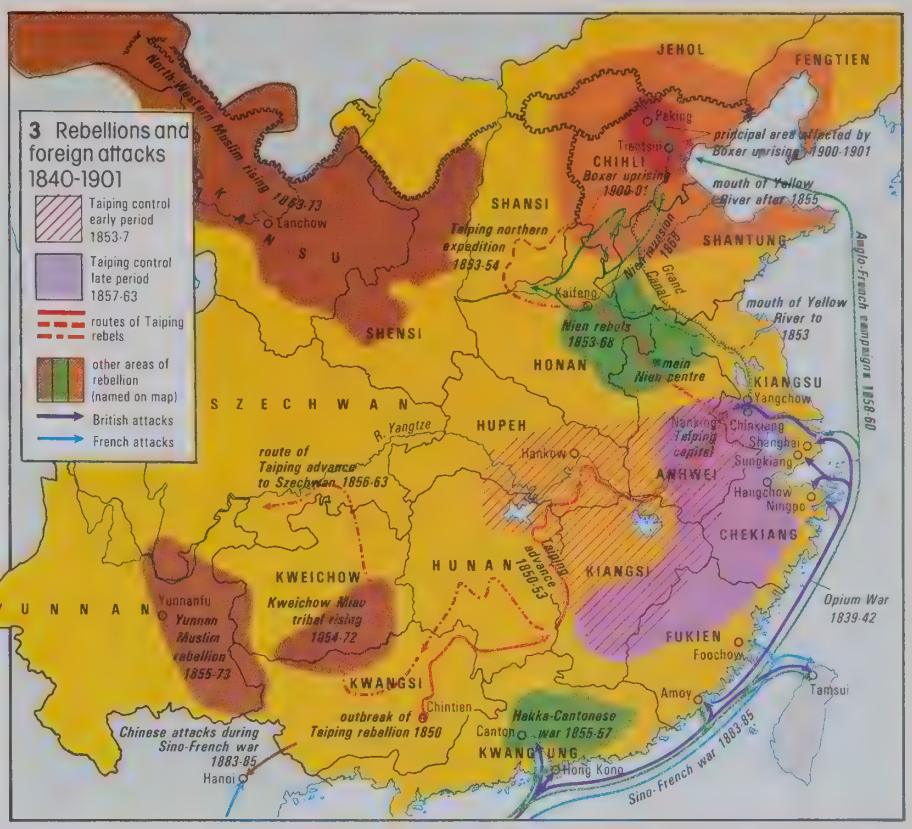
At the same time there was a great economic upsurge (map 2) and a huge increase in population, from 100 million in 1650 to 300 million in 1820 and 420 million in 1850. There was also a considerable export trade in tea, silk and porcelain with the West from Canton and with Russia from Kyakhta. But the financial strain of the wars of expansion and the pressure of the growing population on the land imposed hardships which led to recurrent unrest and revolts, not only among the minority peoples who were harshly exploited by Chinese and Manchus alike, but also in the heart of China itself. Of these the most serious was the White Lotus rebellion between 1795 and 1804. Meanwhile the export surplus was converted after 1825 into a net outflow as a result of the opium trade. Manchu China was still the world's largest and most populous empire. But its growing economic difficulties, coupled with the failure to expand the administration to match the rapid growth of population, and the pressures of the Western powers, seeking to open the China market for their manufactures, resulted in a crisis which came to a head after Chinese attempts to halt the illicit opium trade were decisively defeated by the British in the Opium War of 1839–42.

The Opium War had two major consequences. First, it resulted in the cession of Hong Kong to the British and in the opening of the first five Treaty Ports (their number was thereafter steadily increased) in which foreigners enjoyed extra-territorial rights. Secondly, it weakened imperial authority and led to the great Taiping rebellion (1850–64), the most serious but only one of many rebellions which shook Manchu power to its foundations (map 3). The Taiping and Nien rebellions alone left 25 million dead and vast areas, including the wealthy region around Nanking, were devastated. They also convinced the Western powers that Ch'ing China was on the point of collapse and inaugurated a scramble for concessions (map 4).

The response of the Manchu court and bureaucracy was hesitant and half-hearted, more intent on maintaining traditional institutions and Confucian values than on modernisation. Foreign powers had taken advantage of the situation: the British and French occupied Peking in 1856 and forced open more treaty ports, the Russians occupied the Amur region in 1858 and the Maritime Province in 1860 and China was defeated by France in a war over Indo-China in 1884–85. But it was the overwhelming success of Japan in the war of 1894–95 that convinced a section of the Chinese intelligentsia that only a break with the past could save China, and they secured the support of the young emperor Kuang-su. But the reform movement of 1898 was defeated by the dowager empress Tzu-hsi whose reaction was to turn the popular discontent against the foreigners. The result was the Boxer Rising of 1900, an outburst of xenophobia savagely suppressed by the Western powers, who imposed a heavy indemnity and wrung still further concessions from China. By now even the imperial government realised that modernisation was imperative; but, in spite of a number of reforms, its attitude was still essentially conservative. Convinced that the imperial government was the main obstacle to change, revolutionary groups sprang up everywhere after 1901, and when in 1911 a small-scale army mutiny broke out in Wuchang, disaffection spread throughout the whole country (page 122). The imperial government fell, almost without fighting; but China had still to undergo more than forty years of tribulation before it finally made the transition to the modern world.



furs, gold, ginseng
Peking
SHANTUNG
Lintsing
Tsining
Grand Canal
Yun Ho
raw cotton, grain
Sian
Hwaian
Yangchow
Nanking
copper
Soochow
HUPEH AND HUNAN
Hangchow
engtu
R. Yangtze
Nanchang
Changsha
tea, porcelain, silk, cotton
FUKIEN
limited Dutch trade
WEICHOW
Amoy
KWANGSI
Canton
KWANGTUNG
overseas trade with West
tea, silk, fine cottons, porcelain, lacquer


3 Rebellions and foreign attacks 1840-1901
Taiping control early period 1853-7
Taiping control late period 1857-63
routes of Taiping rebels
other areas of rebellion (named on map)
British attacks
French attacks
North-Western Muslim rising 1863-73
KANSU
Lanchow
JEHOL
FENGTIEN
Peking
Tientsin
CHIHLI
Boxer uprising 1900-01
principal area affected by Boxer uprising 1900-1901
mouth of Yellow River after 1855
SHANSI
Taiping northern expedition 1853-54
Nien invasion 1857
Grand Canal
SHANTUNG
Anglo-French campaign 1858-60
Kaifeng
mouth of Yellow River to 1853
SHENSI
Nien rebels 1853-68
HONAN
main Nien centre
KIANGSU
Yangchow
SZECHWAN
R. Yangtze
HUPEH
Nanking Taiping capital
Chinkiang
Shanghai
Sungkiang
route of Taiping advance to Szechwan 1856-63
Hankow
ANHWEI
Hangchow
Ningpo
CHEKIANG
Taiping advance 1850-53
HUNAN
KIANGSI
KWEICHOW
Kweichow Miao tribal rising 1854-72
YUNNAN
Yunnanfu
Yunnan Muslim rebellion 1855-73
Opium War 1839-42
FUKIEN
Foochow
Amoy
Tamsui
KWANGSI
Chintien
outbreak of Taiping rebellion 1850
Hakka-Cantonese war 1855-57
Canton
KWANGTUNG
Hong Kong
Chinese attacks during Sino-French war 1883-85
Hanoi
Sino-French war 1883-85

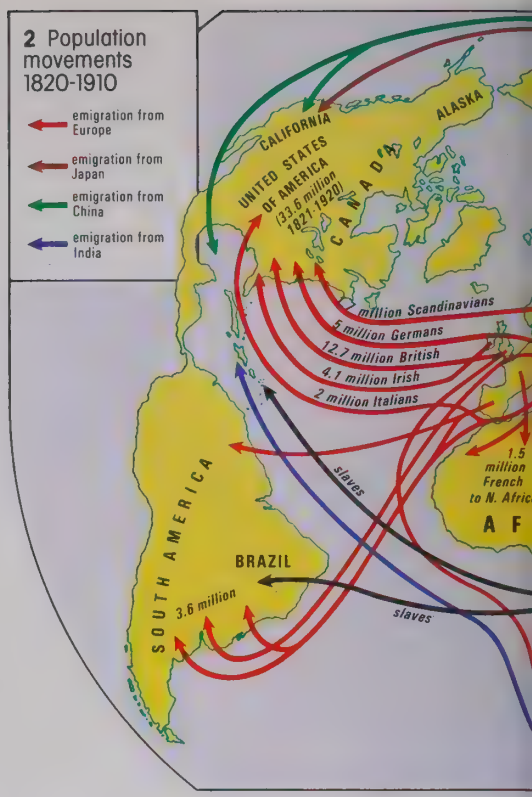
Russian protectorate 1912
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
TANNU TUVA
MONGOLIA
autonomous 1912
Manchouli
Aigun
to Russia 1858
R. Amur
MARITIME PROVINCE
occupied by Russia 1897-1905
Japanese influence after 1905
Harbin
Suifen
R. Ussuri
Changchun
Hunchun
Mukden
Vladivostok
to Russia 1864
to Russia 1871-81
Yellow River (Huang Ho)
Kalgan
Newchwang
Peking
KOREA
Dairen
Antung
Tientsin
to Russia 1898
to Japan 1905
Port Arthur
SINKIANG
Taiyuan
Chefoo
Weihaiwei British 1898
Tsingtao German 1898
Japanese 1910
Tsinan
CHINA
JAPAN
TIBET
autonomous after 1912 under British influence
Pukow
Chinkiang
Nanking
Wusung
Hankow
Wuhu
Soochow
Shanghai
Tehang
Chungking
R. Yangtze
Hangchow
Ningpo
Kiukiang
Yochow
NEPAL
Changsha
Wenchow
BHUTAN
Riukyu Is
to Japan 1872
SIKKIM
British protectorate 1817
ASSAM
British 1826
Santuao
Foochow
FUKIEN
Tamsui
Kunming
Amoy
Taiwan to Japan 1895
BRITISH INDIA
Tengyueh
Mengtze
Manhao
Swatow
Szemao
Lungchow
Nanning
Canton
Macao Portuguese 1557
Kowloon British 1898
Hong Kong British 1842
New Territories British 1898
BURMA
British 1886
FRENCH INDO-CHINA 1884
Pakhoi
Haiphong
Kwangchowan French 1898
LAOS
French 1893
Kiungchow
Hainan
SIAM
40°
100°
4 The dismemberment of the Chinese Empire, 1842-1911
boundary of Ch'ing Empire in 1850
colonial possessions:
spheres of influence:
railways:
Russian
British
Japanese
French
German
Chinese
states formerly tributary to China
Treaty ports and towns:
1842 Treaty of Nanking
1858 Treaty of Tientsin
1860 Peking Convention
1876 Chefoo Convention
1897 Sino-French Trade Convention
additional ports opened by 1911

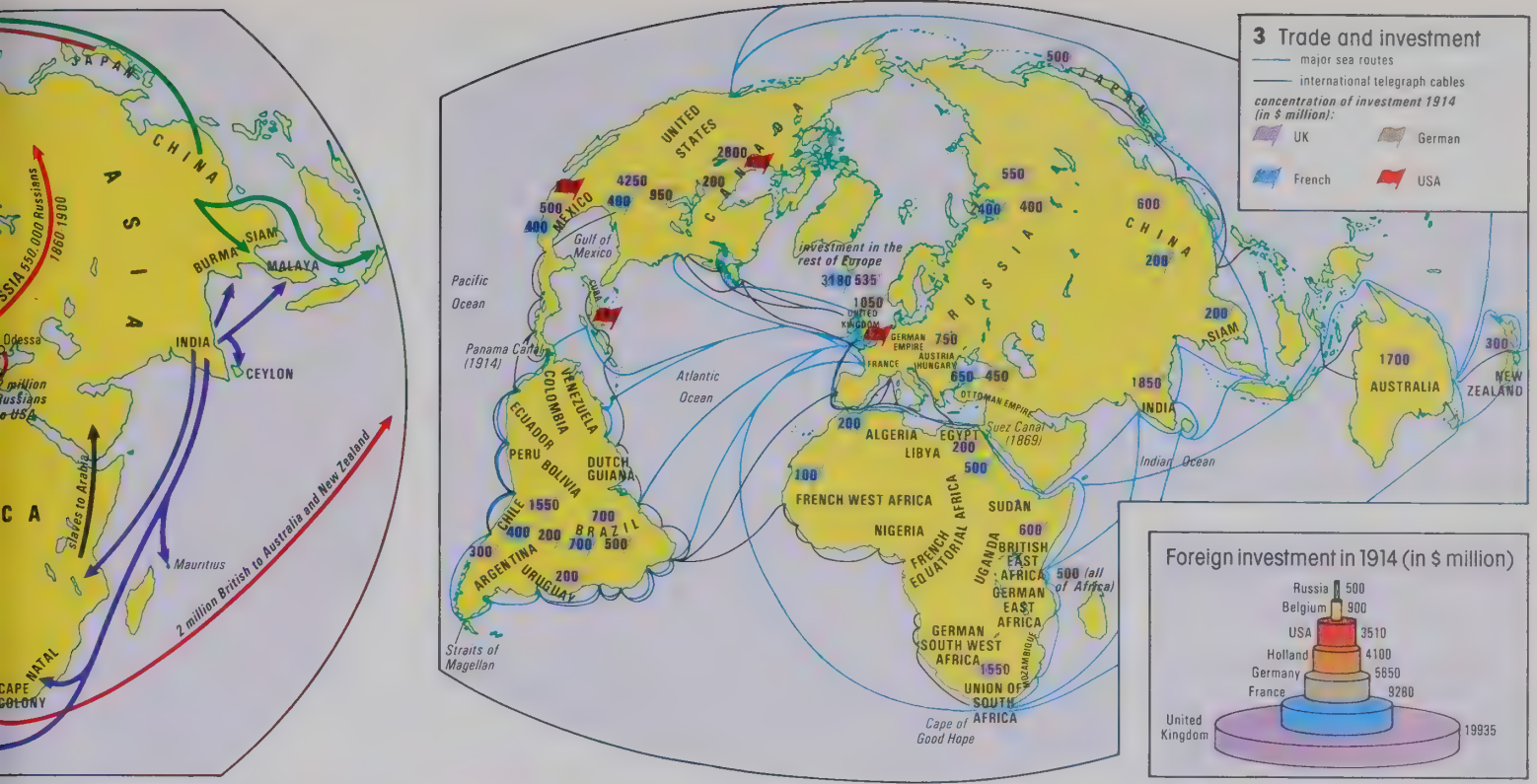
The world economy, 1850-1929

After the middle of the nineteenth century the Industrial Revolution, which had radiated from Great Britain to north-west Europe and the eastern seaboard of the United States, spread to the rest of the world. The result, by 1914, was the formation of a single interdependent world economy. But the impact was extremely varied. Though the United States after 1890 was becoming an important subsidiary centre, the focus throughout was on Europe, and most of the development was keyed to the needs of European industry for raw materials and fed by European capital. In 1914 Great Britain was the largest source of foreign investment, with overseas assets totalling nearly £4,000 million, while the United States, like Russia, was still a net borrower (map 3); but in world trade it was losing the predominance it had enjoyed in 1860 to Germany and the United States (diagram 5).

One factor behind these developments was the vast, unprecedented flow of population, mainly from Europe to the New World, but also from China and India to South-East Asia and East Africa (map 2). Between 1850 and 1920 over 40 million Europeans emigrated overseas or to Siberia, carrying with them European institutions and skills which they used to exploit the vast overseas territories. Much foreign investment went into building the infrastructure of railways, ports and shipping and creating the network of communications upon which the functioning of the world economy depended. Outside Europe and the United States there were only 9,100 miles of railroad track in 1870. By 1911 it had increased to 175,000 miles. Equally important was the expansion of world shipping and the replacement of sailing ships by ocean-going steamships of large capacity. The opening of the Suez Canal (1869) and the Panama Canal (1914) gave a great fillip to world trade (diagram 4). Traffic via Suez rose from 437,000 tons in 1870 to over 20 million tons in 1913, and foreign trade increased threefold in volume during the same period.

Nevertheless the effects of industrialisation were distinctly one-sided. The main shipping routes (map 3) were between the advanced countries and the white dominions, or between them and the producers of raw materials. Even as late as 1929 the world was still a white man's world. A few countries such as India (page 104) and China had begun to develop their own industries; but, with the exception of Japan, they were small enclaves in a vast rural population. In 1914 there were still only 900,000 factory workers in the whole of India, and 69 per cent of cotton operatives in 1919 were in Bombay province. Nowhere outside the United States and Europe was the income produced by manufacturing substantial in 1930 (map 1) and in most cases it accrued to foreign investors. This was true of Malaya, which by 1900 was producing nearly half the world's tin and by 1910 was a major exporter of rubber, and of Katanga, where copper production rose from nothing in 1900 to 305,000 tons (including Northern Rhodesia) in 1930. Here, as elsewhere, the bulk of the population benefited only marginally, and per capita income in most countries seems actually to have declined. This was the situation which led, a generation later, to the conflict of rich nations and poor nations (page 150) and the demand for a New International Economic Order.

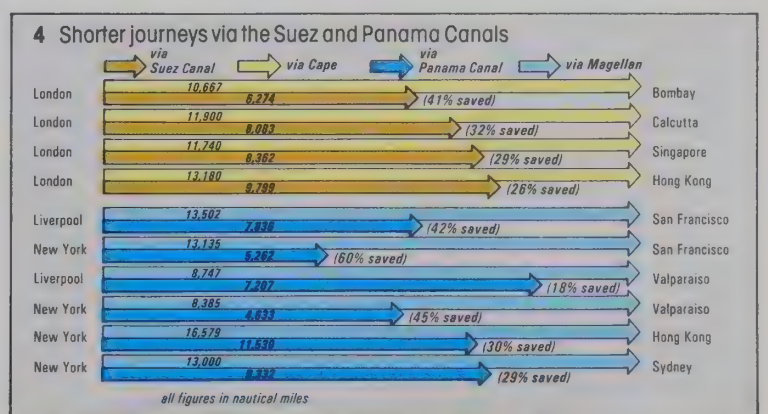




5 Balance of world trade, 1860 and 1913

		Europe	N. America	S. America	Asia	Africa
UNITED KINGDOM	imports 1860	419	252	96	143	80
	exports 1860	358	132	74	139	36
	imports 1913	1,548	848	393	458	220
	exports 1913	917	265	272	620	248
USA	imports 1860	217	–	80	29	–
	exports 1860	249	–	46	11	–
	imports 1913	893	199	381	298	26
	exports 1913	1,479	469	294	140	29
FRANCE	imports 1860	234	47	41	16	34
	exports 1860	293	49	53	3	45
	imports 1913	880	187	183	192	148
	exports 1913	937	89	94	35	181
HOLLAND	imports 1860	92	5	3	32	–
	exports 1860	87	2	1	14	–
	imports 1913	624	190	87	274	14
	exports 1913	1,131	57	9	73	14
GERMANY	imports 1913	1,402	423	290	250	118
	exports 1913	1,828	184	183	130	50
RUSSIA	imports 1913	556	–	–	–	–
	exports 1913	719	–	–	–	–

figures in million dollars US



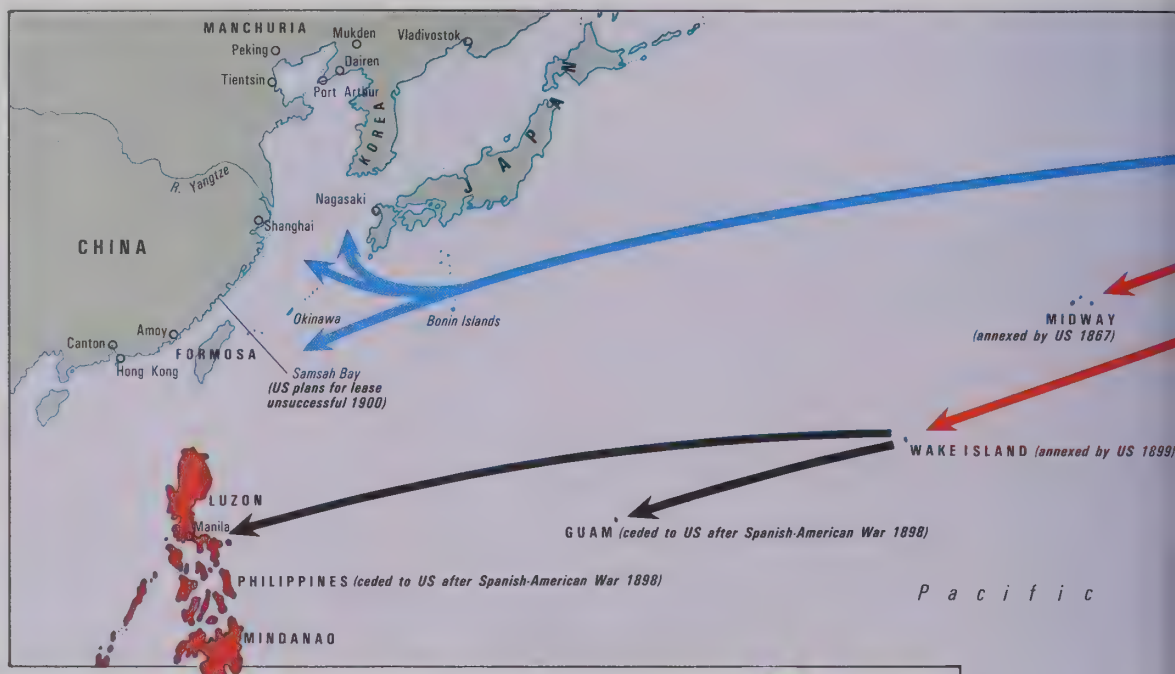
The United States and Canada, 1865-1920

The rise of the modern United States dates effectively from the Civil War, but development was very uneven. For the defeated South the period of Reconstruction (1865–77) was a bitter experience. South Carolina had ranked third in the nation in per capita wealth in 1860; ten years later it was fortieth, and Mississippi, Alabama and Georgia fared no better. Worst of all was the position of the 4 million liberated slaves, who found themselves (as the black leader Frederick Douglass said) without money, property or friends. The great upsurge in population, from 31 million in 1860 to 92 million in 1910, by-passed the South and concentrated wealth and power in the north-east where, with the exploitation of the rich ore reserves of the Mesabi Range in Minnesota and the vast coal reserves of the Appalachians, industry spread rapidly from the original manufacturing belt between Boston and New Jersey to Pittsburgh, Detroit and Chicago. Only around 1920 did cheap labour attract the textile industry from New England to the South (map 2).

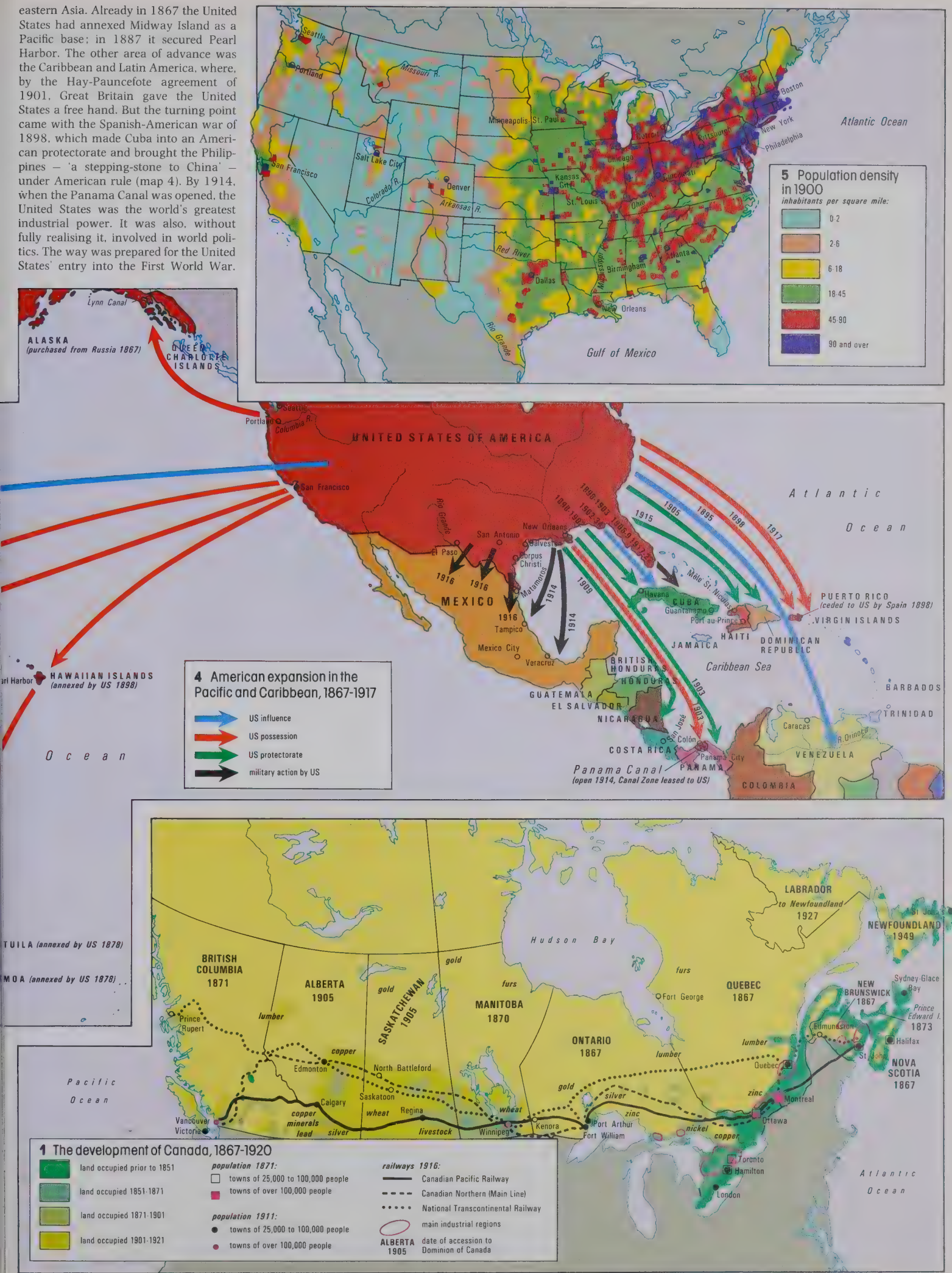
The Civil War itself had stimulated Northern industry. After 1865 it forged ahead. But the most striking achievement of the immediate post-war period was the opening of the Great Plains, made possible by the railroad boom after 1870. In 1860 some 30,000 miles of railway were in operation, but few lines extended beyond the Great Lakes. By 1870 the mileage had reached 53,000, by 1880 93,000 and by 1890 163,000 miles (page 94). Land grants of more than 132 million acres encouraged railway promoters, and homestead grants of 285 million acres attracted settlers. The number of farms rose from 2 million in 1860 to 6 million in 1910, and grain exports, which the rail network made possible, were an important source of capital for industrial development. The population west of the Mississippi rose from 6 million in 1870 to 26 million in 1910. Nevertheless the bulk of the population was concentrated in the north-east (map 5), and most of the 25 million immigrants between 1870 and 1914 remained there, providing cheap labour for American industry. Their miserable conditions, and those of the southern blacks, lay behind the unrest which erupted in the 1890s (map 2).

In Canada railway development was even more important than in the United States. Hitherto the 'small and unimportant' eastern colonies (as Lord Durham described them in his famous Report of 1839) had gone their separate ways, more closely linked to the United States, which made no secret of its hope to absorb them, than with each other. After the acquisition of Alaska from Russia (map 4), United States' pressure grew, and to meet it the Canadian Federation was formed in 1867 and completed by the adhesion of Manitoba (1870) and British Columbia (1871). The great transcontinental railways – the Great Western and Canadian Pacific (completed 1885), followed by the Canadian Northern and Grand Trunk Pacific – were the lifeblood of the new Dominion and changed the axis of Canadian life. Railway development opened Manitoba and Saskatchewan, and made Canada into one of the world's leading wheat producers (map 1). It also led to the discovery of rich mineral deposits, particularly copper and nickel (1883). The other major industry in 1914 was lumber and the manufacture of paper and newsprint. In general, however, industrialisation was only beginning, though the value of Canada's industrial output increased from $190 million in 1890 to over $500 million in 1914.

In the United States, on the other hand, the 1880s and 1890s saw an astounding industrial upsurge. Output of coal and iron increased twenty times between 1870 and 1913, by which date steel production exceeded that of Britain and Germany combined. But the 'Gilded Age' was also a time of gross inequalities, and speculation and over-production caused serious economic setbacks, particularly in 1873 and 1893, which led not only to industrial unrest but also to a search for new markets, particularly in



eastern Asia. Already in 1867 the United States had annexed Midway Island as a Pacific base; in 1887 it secured Pearl Harbor. The other area of advance was the Caribbean and Latin America, where, by the Hay-Pauncefote agreement of 1901, Great Britain gave the United States a free hand. But the turning point came with the Spanish-American war of 1898, which made Cuba into an American protectorate and brought the Philippines – 'a stepping-stone to China' – under American rule (map 4). By 1914, when the Panama Canal was opened, the United States was the world's greatest industrial power. It was also, without fully realising it, involved in world politics. The way was prepared for the United States' entry into the First World War.

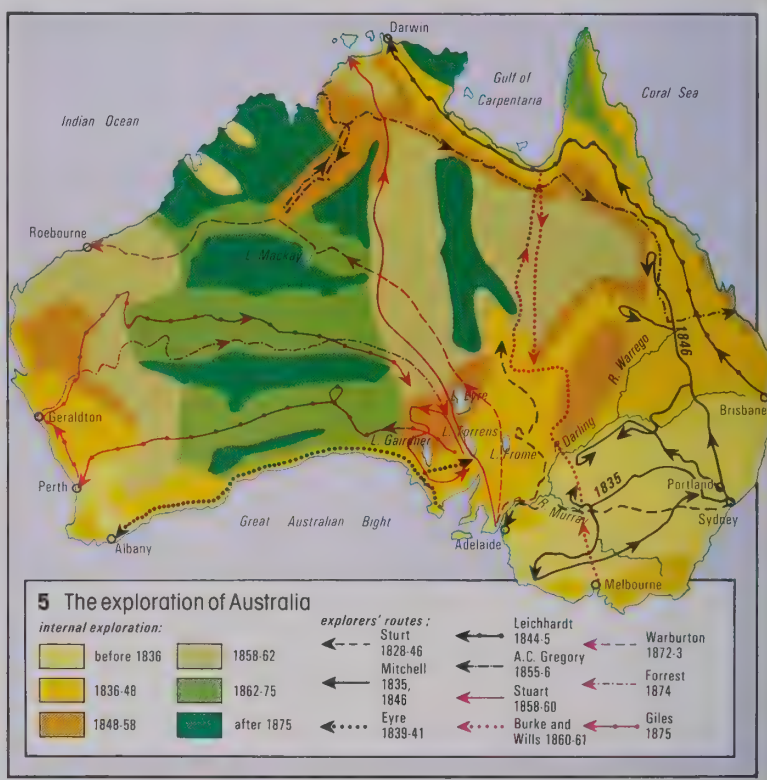


Australia and New Zealand from 1788

Although Australia and New Zealand were discovered by the Dutch explorer Tasman in 1642, colonisation only began after Cook hoisted the British flag at Botany Bay in 1770 (page 64). New South Wales served as a penal colony from 1788 to 1839, Van Diemen's Land (later Tasmania) from 1804 to 1853, and in 1829 the British government, fearing to be forestalled by the French, claimed the whole Australian continent. Fear of France also led to the annexation of New Zealand in 1840. But in both lands geographical obstacles, lack of exportable products, and, in the case of New Zealand, the bitter Maori wars between 1860 and 1871, made the early years of colonisation difficult. New South Wales was hemmed in by the Blue Mountains. Beyond the Great Dividing Range the country soon became arid and inhospitable. Coastal settlements at Perth (1829), Melbourne (1835), and Adelaide (1836) established bridgeheads for exploration in the west (map 5), but as late as 1850 the total white population was only around 350,000, while in New Zealand it was still below 100,000 in 1860. Inducements to settle were few. Neither country was self-supporting, and early trade (chiefly seal products and sandalwood) was insufficient to pay for imports (map 4), and was further hampered by the East India Company's monopoly in the area.

The discovery of gold in New South Wales and Victoria in 1851 and in Otago (South Island) in 1861 initiated a new phase. Even more important was the rapid growth of sheep farming. In 1850 Australia sent 39 million lb. of wool to Great Britain. By 1879 the quantity had increased to 300 million lb. In New Zealand, where wool was largely a South Island product, exports rose from £67,000 in value in 1853 to £2,700,000 twenty years later. The development of the North Island, held back by the Maori wars, came later, after the introduction of refrigeration. Refrigeration made possible the large-scale export of frozen lamb from the South Island, but it also lay behind the growth of dairy farming in the north, which now, stimulated by the exports trade in butter and cheese, drew ahead of the south in population.

Political development kept pace with economic growth. In 1855 New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia and Tasmania became self-governing colonies, followed by Queensland in 1859, and in 1901 joined together to form the Commonwealth of Australia. New Zealand, which had been divided in 1852 into six provinces, each with an elected council, became a united Dominion in 1876, after measures had been taken to safeguard the rights of the Maori population. Both dominions remained heavily dependent on primary exports. For long they enjoyed preferential treatment in the British market; but developments after 1945, particularly the British retreat from Asia, brought important changes. In 1952 both dominions joined for security with the United States in the ANZUS Pact, and when Great Britain entered the European Common Market (1973) and dismantled imperial preference, they were forced to diversify their economies and seek new markets. The process of reorientation is still continuing.



Early trade (left)
1/Main route from Europe via Cape of Good Hope. First colonisation fleet to New South Wales 1788, mainly convicts and marines. By 1790, with arrival of second fleet, it was clear that the colonies would be reliant upon regular supplies from Europe.

2/Convict transport ships return to U.K. via New Zealand for timber, and Canton for tea or Calcutta for oriental goods.

3/Sydney-based ships to Pacific islands for sandalwood to trade for tea at Canton.

4/Sydney-based ships to Bass Strait islands for seal skins and oil (first major exports to U.K.). Seal fields soon exhausted. Eastern colony ports used as bases for American and British whaling ships, an industry developed by colonists from 1820s.

5/Sydney to Tahiti for pork for provisioning convicts.

6/Macassan fishermen to northern Australian coast to collect trepang (sea cucumbers) to trade with Chinese merchants.

7/Van Diemen's land grain to Sydney.

8/South Australian grain to eastern colonies.

9/South Australian grain to Europe. From 1840s wool and minerals, the basis of late nineteenth century trade with Europe.

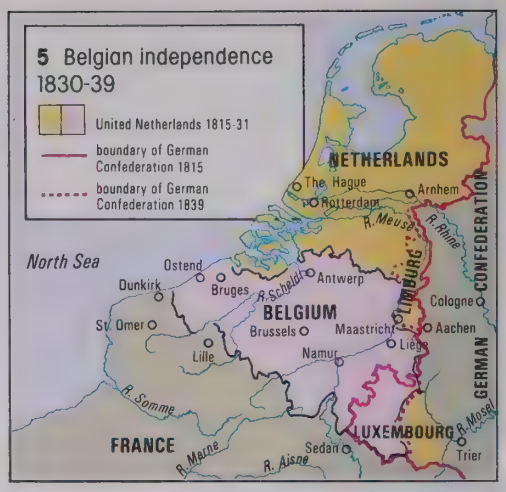
European nationalism
1815-1914

The flame of nationalism was kindled in Europe by the French revolution. In France itself the revolution forged a sense of national unity, and elsewhere, notably in Spain and Prussia, the humiliation of defeat and French occupation after 1807 produced a short-lived national reaction. For the most part, however, nationalism was confined to a narrow segment of the middle class. It was anathema to the ruling classes, and rarely touched working people. Polish peasants held aloof from the insurrections of 1831, 1846 and 1863; in Ireland only acute agrarian distress after 1877 lined them up behind the nationalists. Down to 1848 liberal and constitutional reform was the main demand, and it was against this, rather than nationalism, that the victorious powers set their faces after the fall of Napoleon at the Congress of Vienna in 1815. Their other main objective was to erect a barrier against a resurgence of revolutionary France. Hence their decision to transfer the Austrian Netherlands (later Belgium) to Holland, to install Prussia in Westphalia and most of the Rhineland, and to hand over the ancient republic of Genoa to Sardinia-Piedmont. As compensation for the loss of the Netherlands, Austria received the Venetian republic and the duchy of Milan, as well as indirect control of Parma, Modena and Tuscany. Sweden, which had to surrender Finland to Russia, was compensated with Norway.

The overriding objective of the great powers after 1815 was to uphold the Vienna settlement and to combat the threat of liberalism and nationalism, but by 1830, when a new wave of liberal and nationalist agitation broke out, the eastern and western powers were drawing apart. By destroying a common front, their divergence of interests enabled Greece (page 116) and Belgium to obtain independence, although in the latter case the territorial settlement, including the disposal of Limburg and Luxembourg was postponed until 1839 (map 5).

In Norway the forced union with Sweden aroused resentment similar to that felt in Belgium towards Holland. There was friction, but little active resistance, and eventually a Norwegian declaration of independence was accepted by Sweden (map 4). The course of events in Poland (1831, 1846) and in Italy, Germany and Hungary in 1848–49 was more eventful. Here nationalist agitation erupted in full-scale war; but the solidarity of the conservative powers and divisions among the nationalists themselves brought all to nothing.

What changed this situation was the rise of a new generation of statesmen. Louis Napoleon, emperor of France since 1852, Cavour, who became prime minister of Sardinia-Piedmont in the same year, and Bismarck, minister-president of Prussia after 1862, all toyed with nationalism, confident of their ability to use it for their own ends. These were not the ends of the liberals who had led the nationalist movements of 1848–49. Cavour's purpose was to ensure that Italian unification was carried out by and in the interests of Sardinia; hence his opposition to the famous Sicilian expedition of the patriot Garibaldi (1807–82) in 1860. Bismarck was determined to ensure that Germany was merged in Prussia, not Prussia in Germany. Both also realised that their objectives could only be achieved by war and diplomacy. Hence Cavour's alliance with France against Austria (1858) and Bismarck's wars of 1864, 1866 and 1870. The result was the unification of Italy (except for Venetia and the Papal State) in 1861 (map 3) and the unification of Germany in 1871 (map 2). Both were retrospectively endorsed by liberal nationalists, but neither satisfied the nationalism they aroused. Italy still laid claim to the Alto Adige, Fiume and Trieste. Bismarck's 'small German' solution, excluding Austria, disappointed those who hankered after a Greater Germany. Indeed, it was after 1870, when the problems of the multi-national Austro-Hungarian state came to the fore, that nationalist claims became loudest. The confusion of peoples and languages in eastern Europe (map 1) defied easy solutions and exacerbated the conflicts which led, step by step, to war in 1914.



1 Peoples, languages and political divisions in the 19th century
national frontiers 1914
national frontiers in 1815 where different
Romansch
Macedonian Slavs
Atlantic Ocean
SCOTS
IRISH
WELSH
ENGLISH
NORWEGIANS
SWEDES
FINNS
ESTONIANS
LATVIANS
LITHUANIANS
DANES
GREAT RUSSIANS
WHITE RUSSIANS
DUTCH
FLEMINGS
WALLOONS
GERMANS
POLES
UKRAINIANS
BRETONS
FRENCH
CZECHS
SLOVAKS
AUSTRIANS
HUNGARIANS
SLOVENES
CROATS
ROMANIANS
SERBS
BULGARIANS
BASQUES
PORTUGUESE
SPANIARDS
CATALANS
CORSICANS
ITALIANS
ALBANIANS
GREEKS
TURKS

North Sea
Baltic Sea
DENMARK
SCHLESWIG
Schleswig
Kiel
HOLSTEIN
Lübeck
Rostock
Hamburg
MECKLENBURG
Stettin
POMERANIA
Danzig
Königsberg
Tilsit
R. Niemen
EAST PRUSSIA
WEST PRUSSIA
PRUSSIA
OLDENBURG
Bremen
HANOVER
R. Elbe
Amsterdam
The Hague
NETHERLANDS
Hanover
Berlin
Warthe
POSEN
Posen
R. Vistula
Münster
WESTPHALIA
BRUNSWICK
ANHALT
BRANDENBURG
RUSSIA
Antwerp
Dortmund
Göttingen
Brussels
Düsseldorf
Kassel
Leipzig
POLAND
RHENISH PRUSSIA
Aachen
Cologne
BELGIUM
Erfurt
Dresden
Breslau
R. Oder
SILESIA
THURINGIA
SAXONY
WETZLAR
HESSE
NASSAU
Koblenz
R. Mosel
Frankfurt
Sedan
1870
Luxembourg
Darmstadt
Prague
Sadowa 1866
BOHEMIA
Prussians occupy Paris 1871
Verdun
Metz
PALATINATE
Nuremberg
LORRAINE
Karlsruhe
Nancy
Strassburg
Stuttgart
WÜRTTEMBERG
BAVARIA
FRANCE
R. Meuse
ALSACE
R. Rhine
Ulm
HOHENZOLLERN
BADEN
Munich
R. Danube
Vienna
Basle
Constance
AUSTRIA
SWITZERLAND
2 The unification of Germany, 1815-71
Prussia in 1815
acquired by Prussia 1815-66
boundary of German Confederation of 1815
boundary of North German Confederation 1866
Imperial territory of Alsace-Lorraine 1871
boundary of German Empire 1871
Austro-Prussian forces attack Denmark 1864
Prussian armies in the war with Austria 1866
German armies in the Franco-Prussian war 1870-71

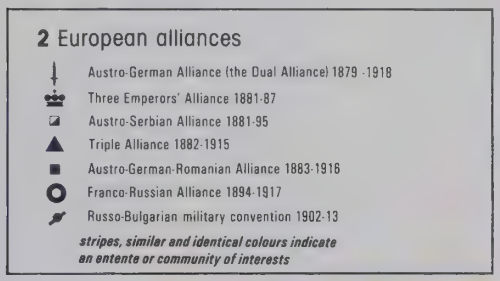
The European powers
1878-1914

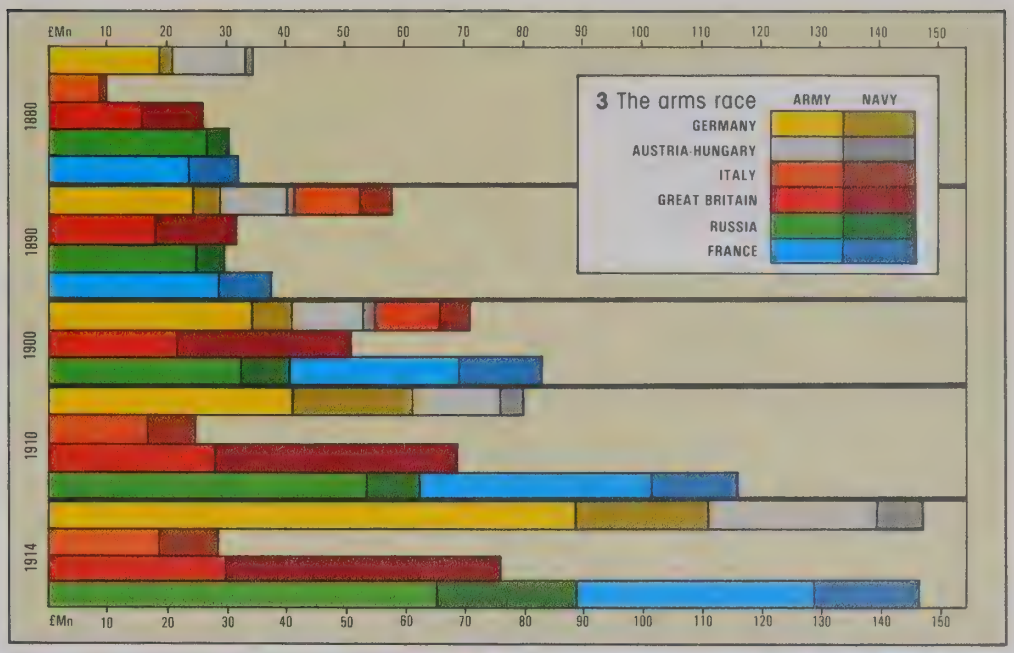
After the unification of Germany and of Italy (page 114), it seemed for a time as though the major questions which had disturbed the peace of Europe since 1848 had been resolved. Bismarck, the architect of German unification, concentrated his efforts after 1871 upon building a system of alliances which would ensure the future of the new German Reich. The 'wild Junker' had become a conservative, anxious only to preserve what had been won; and his alliances were defensive. But the history of the next forty years is the story of how alliances, originally defensive and stabilising in intent, turned into an aggressive and destabilising system. Furthermore, the unification of Germany and of Italy, far from marking a halting place, opened up a hornet's nest of nationalist revindications. After 1870 the nationalist movement which had agitated western Europe for forty years, spilled over into the Balkans; and the struggles of the Balkan peoples for independence (map 1) inevitably involved the powers who were their supporters or adversaries, particularly Russia and Austria-Hungary, which, after its exclusion from Germany and Italy after 1866, was essentially an eastward-looking Balkan power.

The evolution of the relations between the great powers between 1879, when Bismarck tried to reconcile his sympathies with a conservative Russia with support for Austria-Hungary, and 1914, when the whole precarious balance fell apart, is indicated diagrammatically on maps 2(a) to 2(f). Until the beginning of the new century the system worked reasonably well. Revolts in the Balkans between 1875 and 1878, culminating in Russian intervention and war with Turkey, thoroughly alarmed the powers; and after the Congress of Berlin (1878) Balkan affairs took a secondary place. Checked in Europe, Russia turned to central Asia and the Far East, and during the first half of the period the dominant themes were Anglo-Russian rivalry in Asia and Anglo-French rivalry in Africa. What changed this situation was the decision of Germany under William II, particularly after Bülow became chancellor in 1900, to seek 'a place in the sun'. This was not unreasonable; but by now most places in the sun had been occupied, and German policy was seen as a threat by the established imperial powers. The result was the Anglo-French reconciliation (1904) and the Anglo-Russian reconciliation (1907). German 'world policy' also required a navy, resulting in the naval competition which soured Anglo-German relations between 1906 and 1912. After 1907 the Triple Entente with France and Russia became the lynch-pin of British policy, the only firm assurance against the German 'threat'. Germany, on the other hand, saw itself being 'encircled' by a hostile ring constructed by Great Britain.

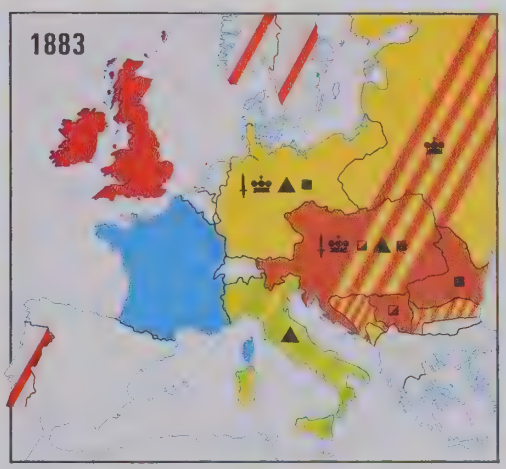
The result was that the lines between the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente were drawn tighter. Also

Germany was driven closer to its only dependable ally, Austria-Hungary. When Austria annexed Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1908, Bülow lent full support, and Austro-Russian antagonism in the Balkans, hitherto suppressed, was rekindled. The climax was postponed until the outbreak of the Balkan wars in 1912. The aggrandisement of Serbia which resulted was viewed by Austria as an intolerable threat. Russia, on the other hand, could not leave Serbia in the lurch without losing credibility. The result was the stupendous build-up of armaments (diagram 3) as the grinding logic of the system came into play. When in 1914 the murder of the Austrian archduke Franz Ferdinand brought matters to a head, the combustible material was piled up which exploded in the First World War.



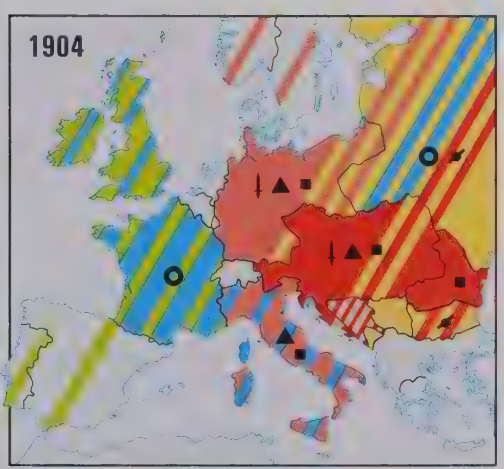


2a/The Dual Alliance: October 1879, resulted from the Balkan upheavals of 1875–8. When Russia attacked Turkey and imposed the Treaty of San Stefano, the Austro-Russian understanding of 1873 broke down. Bismarck's purpose in the Dual Alliance was to stabilise the situation. Germany could not afford to let Austria-Hungary succumb to a Russian attack; but the alliance was strictly defensive. It did not imply a common front against Russia, understanding with which was still a basic element in Bismarck's policy, still less a German commitment to underwrite Austrian ambitions in the Balkans. Nevertheless the Dual Alliance marked a turning point: the era of formal alliances had begun.

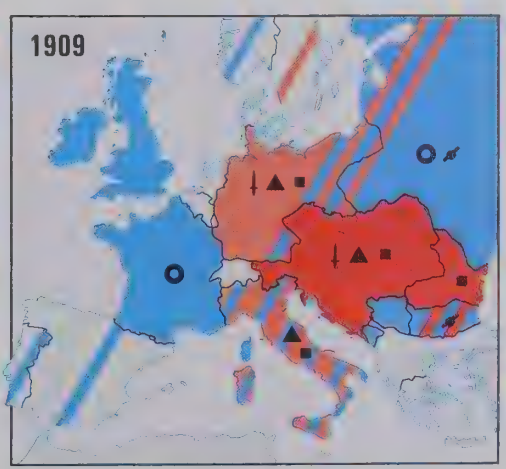


2b/Bismarck's system at its zenith: 1883. The formation of the Three Emperors' Alliance (1881) appeared to have restored stability in Eastern Europe. But the smouldering Austro-Russian antagonism continued, brought to a head again by the Bulgarian crisis of 1886–7. Alliances with Serbia (1881) and Romania (1883) sought to limit Russian influence in the Balkans. The Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria and Italy (1882) insured Austria against Italian attack in case of war with Russia. After the Three Emperors' Alliance broke down, Bismarck sought security by his Reinsurance Treaty with Russia (1887), while Austria joined in a 'Mediterranean agreement' with Britain, Italy and Spain against France and Russia.

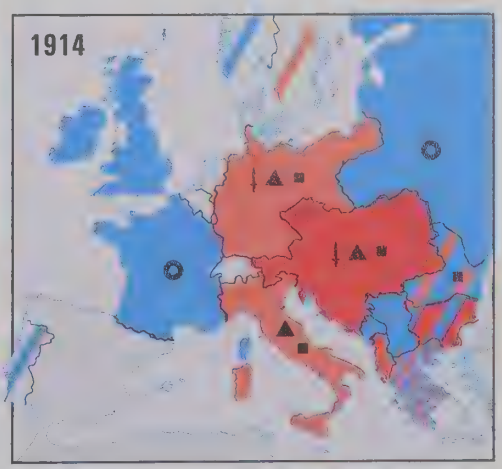
2c/The 'New Course' in Germany: 1891. Even before Bismarck's fall in 1890, it was evident that his complicated system of alliances was running into difficulties. Russo-German relations deteriorated sharply after 1887 as a result of tariff and loan disputes. When the new German chancellor, Caprivi, dropped Bismarck's Reinsurance Treaty, renewed the Triple Alliance, and lined up with the 'Mediterranean entente', Russia replied by a military convention and alliance with France (1894). But the 'new course' was short-lived. After 1895 Germany saw more profit in co-operation with France and Russia in the Far East, while Austria-Hungary and Russia agreed (1897) to put Balkan problems on ice.



2d/The Anglo-French entente: 1904. The decision of William II and Bülow after 1897 to move from a continental, European to a 'world' policy challenged all three established imperial powers and brought about a major realignment. In 1902 France settled its long-standing dispute with Italy; in 1904 it reached a similar settlement with Great Britain. Germany's attempt to exploit Russia's weakness after the Russo-Japanese war and the 1905 revolution to prise apart the Franco-Russian alliance misfired. Franco-British ties were strengthened; Russia and England settled their colonial differences in 1907, and the three powers joined in the Triple Entente to counter and contain Germany.



2e/Europe after the Bosnian crisis: 1909. The Austrian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, a response to the Turkish revolution of 1908, ended the Austro-Russian Balkan entente of 1897 and caused a major crisis in international relations. When Russia protested, Germany gave Austria full support, reversing Bismarck's defensive interpretation of the Dual Alliance, and forced Russia to back down. Henceforward Austria-Hungary and Russia were at loggerheads in the Balkans. Anglo-German relations also were at their nadir, a consequence of growing naval rivalry. The result was to consolidate the Triple Entente, particularly after the second Morocco crisis (1911), when Britain took the lead in opposing Germany.



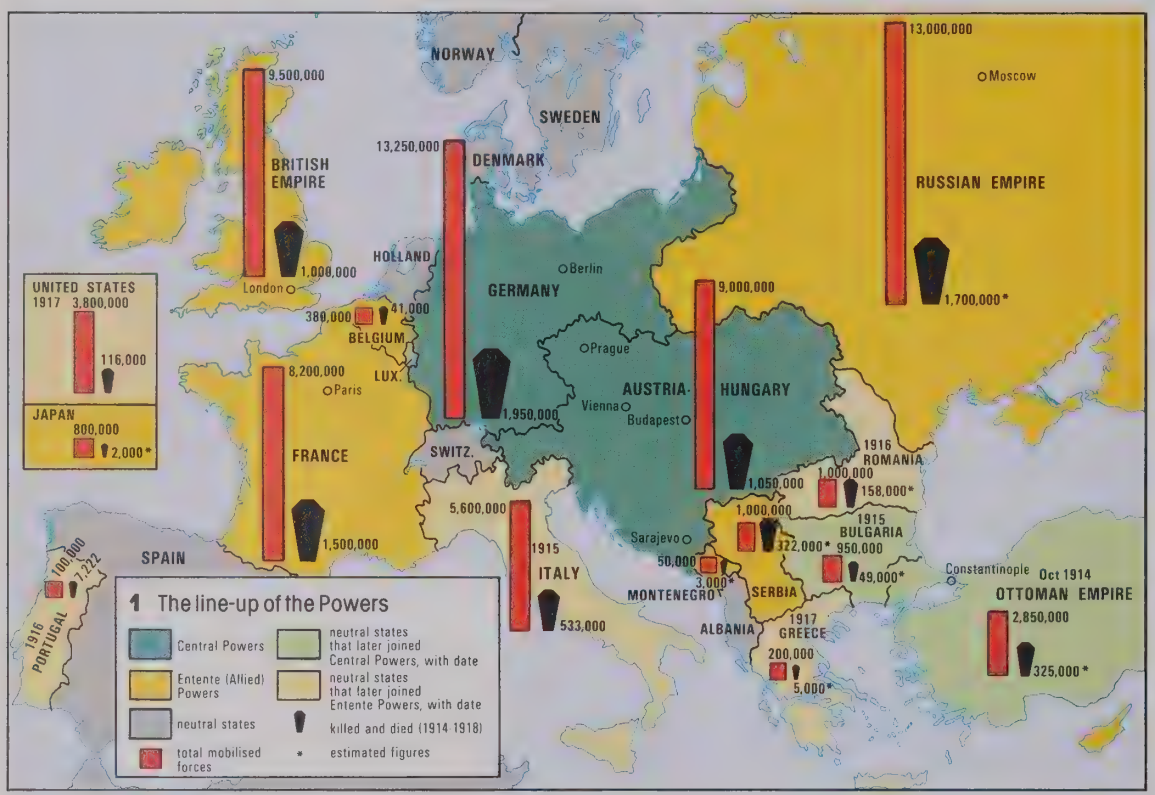
2f/Europe on the eve of war: 1914. Between 1911 and 1914 the front between the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente hardened. During the Balkan wars (1912–13), when Serbia, Greece and Bulgaria combined to drive Turkey out of Europe, the two groups still co-operated. But Austria was aghast at the consequent enlargement of Serbia and feared pro-Serb irredentism in its Slav provinces, and Germany was haunted by the spectre of encirclement. When, after the assassination of Franz Ferdinand at Sarajevo on 28 June 1914, Austria decided to punish Serbia and Berlin threw itself unreservedly behind Vienna, the system of alliances almost automatically led to general war.

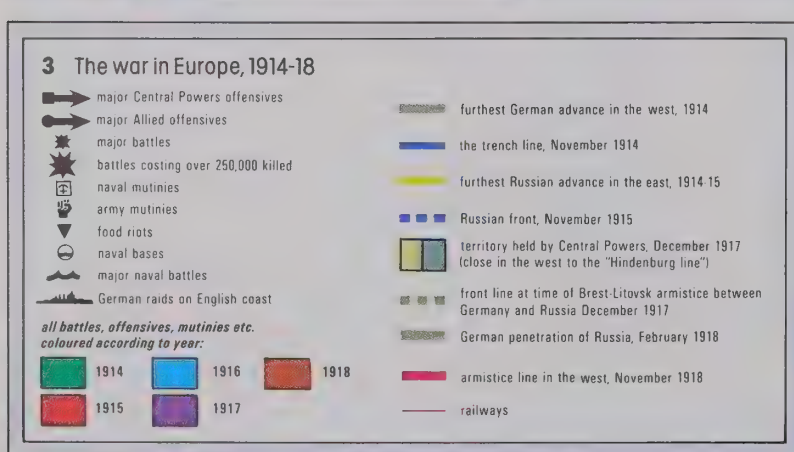
The First World War
1914-1918

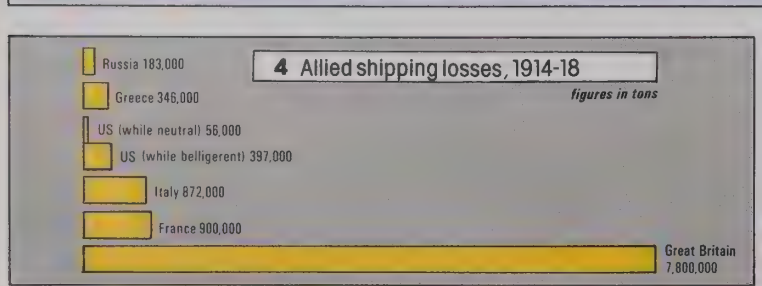
When the assassination of the Austrian heir-presumptive, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, by Bosnian terrorists at Sarajevo on June 28, 1914, sparked off the immediate sequence of events that led to the First World War, the European powers were already divided into heavily armed camps (page 116), and neither was prepared to risk diplomatic defeat. Germany already had its battle plan prepared: the famous Schlieffen Plan, drawn up in 1905, to trap and annihilate the French army by a great encircling movement through Belgium before France's Russian ally had time to mobilise. The expectation everywhere was for a short war, over by Christmas 1914, and only after this expectation proved false did the search for allies begin in earnest. Germany and Austria were joined by the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria, the Entente powers by Italy, Romania and Greece, and eventually by the United States (map 1).

The German strategy was very nearly successful and brought the German armies within 40 miles of Paris (map 2). It was frustrated by the unexpectedly rapid mobilisation of Russia, which invaded East Prussia and defeated the German 8th Army at Gumbinnen (August 20, 1914). Although the Russians were repulsed at Tannenberg (August 26–29), their offensive drew off German reserves, which helped the French and British armies in the west to halt the German advance in the battle of the Marne (September 5–8), while the Russians simultaneously inflicted a crushing defeat on Austria at Lemberg. The Schlieffen Plan had failed, Germany was forced to despatch troops to the east to prop up the Austrian front, and in the west the war became a war of trenches, artillery, barbed wire and machine guns. Each side launched offensives, with sickening casualties, but without succeeding in advancing more than a few thousand yards. Railways could bring up reinforcements to the front before slow-moving advancing troops could make good any advantage they might have created. The question for both, by the end of 1915, was how to break the stalemate. The answer of the Entente, sponsored by Winston Churchill, was to attack Germany from the rear by campaigns in the Dardanelles and Mesopotamia (page 124), at Salonika, and, after Italy entered the war on May 23, 1915, against Austria on the Isonzo. All were failures. The German answer was to bring Great Britain to its knees by crippling losses at sea. The submarine campaign, initiated on February 1, 1917, was nearly successful, and only defeated when Lloyd George introduced the convoy system in May. But its result was to bring the United States into the war on the Entente side on April 6, 1917.

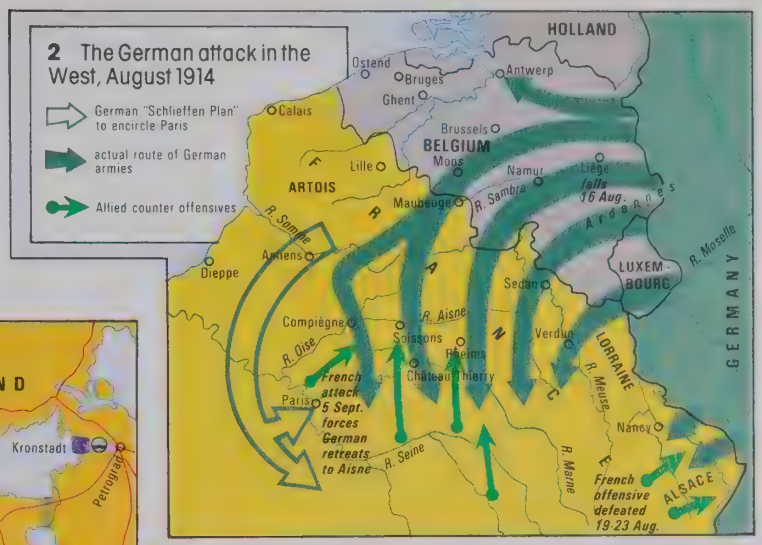
Even so, the German position was not hopeless. Huge losses in the Brusilov offensive of 1916 and economic chaos at home had broken the Russian fighting spirit, and the Russian revolutions of March and October 1917 (page 120) enabled Germany to transfer troops from the Eastern to the Western Front in the hope of victory before the United States could mobilise. On March 21, 1918,







Hindenburg and Ludendorff launched their great offensive in the west (map 3). Once again it was a near success, but the Allied line held, and on July 18 the French commander Foch launched the counter-offensive which was to be the decisive compaign of the war. On September 29 Ludendorff acknowledged defeat. By now war weariness was rampant. Austria and Bulgaria were near to collapse; the British blockade had brought Germany to the edge of starvation; and the German government, fearful of a Bolshevik revolution, sued for an armistice. On November 11, 1918, fighting ceased. Over 8 million men had perished, as had three empires, the Tsarist, the Austro-Hungarian and the Ottoman. In retrospect the war of 1914–18 was the great European civil war, which destroyed the old European order, squandered Europe's human and material resources, and jeopardised its future. Few people realised in 1918 what had happened; but the age of European predominance was over and a new age of global politics had begun.



The Russian Revolution
1905-1925

Revolution came to Russia suddenly, but not unexpectedly, in the wake of the unsuccessful Russo-Japanese war of 1904–05 (page 126). Intensive industrialisation since 1890 had created a large, profoundly discontented urban proletariat, and it was they who spearheaded the revolution of 1905, although their revolt sparked off widespread unrest in the countryside (map 1). The Tsar was forced to grant a constitution, including a *duma*, or parliament, but by 1907 the government was back in full control. Nevertheless the 1905 revolution irreparably weakened the old order, and after 1912, following the shooting of strikers in the Lena goldfields in Siberia, a great new wave of social unrest swept the empire. Internally, Russia was in no position in 1914 to meet the challenge of the First World War; and when in the winter of 1916–17 economic dislocation, hunger and sheer incompetence brought the crisis to a head, the government capitulated almost without resistance. This was the February revolution of 1917, which placed power in the hands of liberal Duma politicians. But the Provisional Government's authority was circumscribed by the powerful Petrograd Council (or Soviet) of Soldiers' and Workers' Deputies, and it was also compromised by its commitment to continue the war. When, in April, Lenin returned from exile in Switzerland, promising peace, land and bread, and demanding all power for the Soviets, its days were numbered. An attempt in September by the Commander-in-Chief, General Kornilov, to seize the capital miscarried when his troops rebelled, and on November 7 (October 25 by the old calendar) the Bolsheviks struck, arrested the Provisional Government, and assumed power in the name of the Soviets. This was the October, or Bolshevik, revolution.

The odds were weighted heavily against the new government. The overriding need was peace, and Lenin insisted, against strong opposition, on accepting the onerous terms imposed by Germany in the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk (March 1918). But immediately the Bolsheviks were faced with civil war and foreign intervention, as White Russian armies with British, French, Czech and other support, attacked the new republic (map 2). Lenin pinned his hope on war-weariness and revolution in the west (map 3) and on uprisings among subject peoples in the east (map 4), but to little avail. In Europe, particularly in Germany, revolutionary currents were strong between 1919 and 1923, but they were met by counter-revolutionary forces, including Hitler's National Socialists. However, foreign intervention and the threat of a White Tsarist restoration rallied support for the Reds, and by 1920 the civil war had been won. But the devastation was immense. Industrial production in 1920 was down to one-seventh of the 1913 level, and shortages provoked a wave of strikes and riots, culminating in the Kronstadt naval mutiny (February 1921). Lenin's answer was the 'New Economic Policy' (NEP), in effect a relaxation of requisitioning and controls. The new policy worked: by the end of 1925 industrial production had regained its pre-war level. Furthermore, the overt hostility of the West relaxed. War with Poland, which had invaded Russia in 1920, was ended by the Treaty of Riga (March 1921), and at the same time a treaty of friendship was signed with Turkey. It was followed by the Rapallo Treaty with Germany (1922) and in 1924 by diplomatic recognition from Britain, France and other European countries.

After Lenin's death in 1924 and a period of disputed succession Lenin's eventual successor, Stalin, ousted Trotsky, with his policy of 'permanent revolution'. Stalin's policy of 'socialism in one country', implying large-scale industrialisation and a re-shaping of inefficient agriculture, placed Russia, at a terrible human cost, in the first rank of industrial and international powers. Inaugurated by the first Five Year Plan of 1928, in many respects it marked a sharp break with the revolution of 1917. But it was also a fulfilment of Lenin's work. Even at the time of Lenin's death Russia was backward and under-developed. By 1939, as Lenin foresaw, Bolshevism had become 'a world force', changing the course of history.

1 The first Russian revolution, 1905

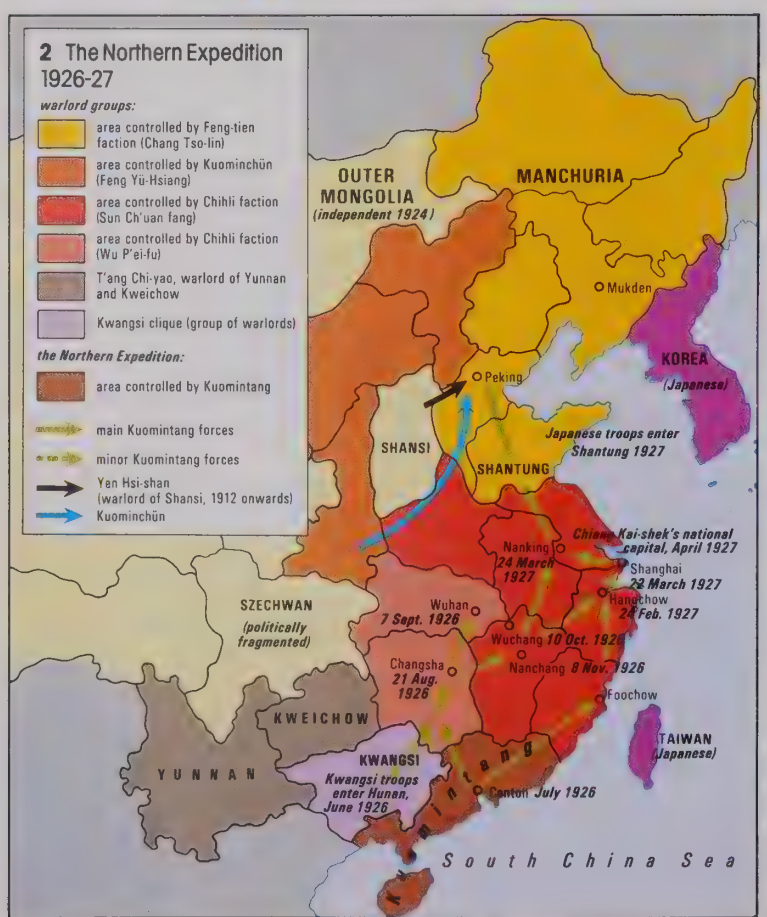
- major strikes and armed workers' uprisings
- peasant unrest and land seizures
- workers' soviets
- army mutinies
- naval mutinies
- voyage of the battleship Potemkin

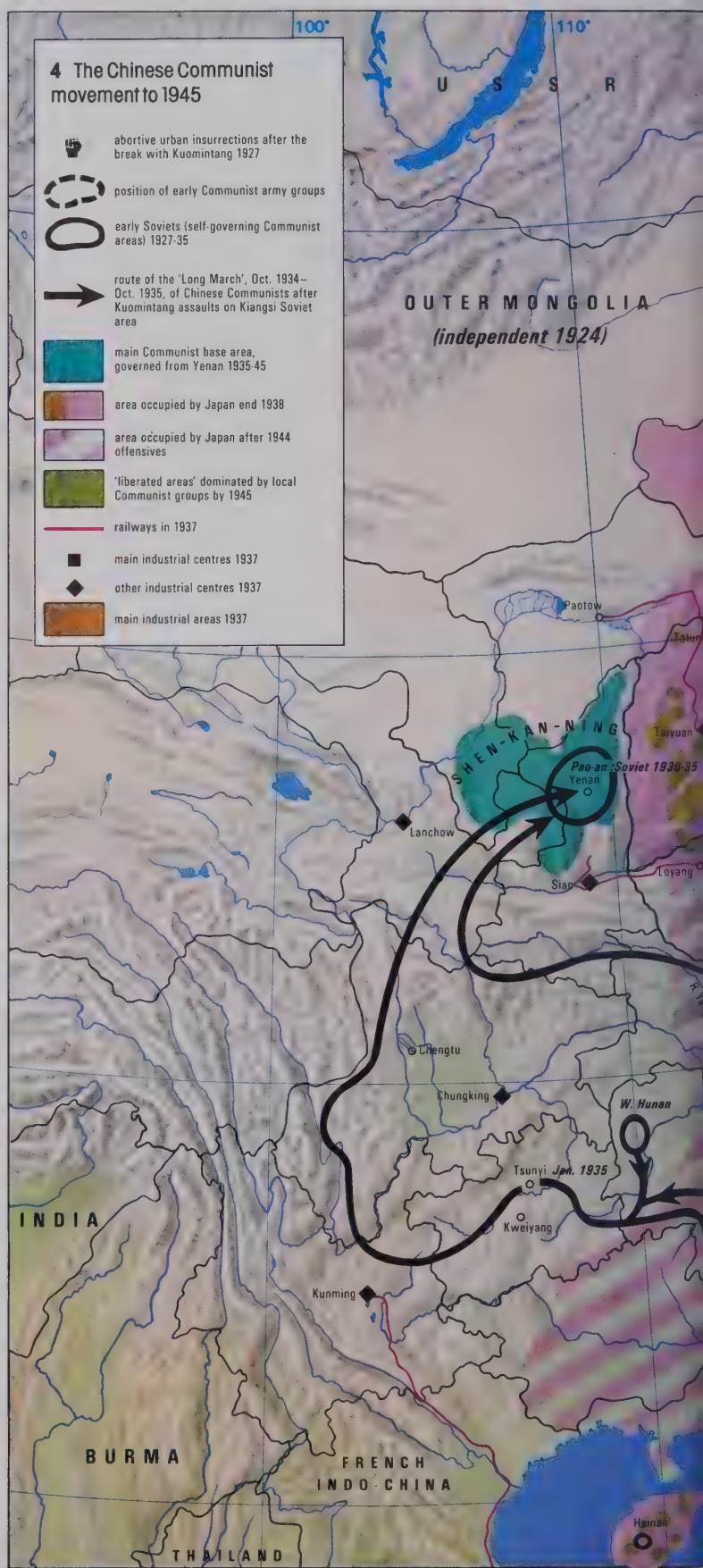
2 Russia in war and revolution
boundary of the Russian Empire, 1914
front between Russia and Central Powers, March 1917
principal towns where Bolsheviks took power, Nov. 1917-Feb. 1918 (dates in new calendar)
boundary of Russian territory occupied by Central Powers following the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, March 1918
boundary of area controlled by the Bolsheviks, August 1918
eastern boundary of area controlled by the Bolsheviks, April 1919
area controlled by the Bolsheviks, October 1919
boundary of Soviet Territory, March 1921
boundary of areas controlled by anti-Bolshevik forces, May 1920
White Russian armies
non-Russian anti-Bolshevik forces
Barents Sea
White Sea
Baltic Sea
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
RUSSIA
BOLSHEVIK
ESTONIA
LATVIA
LITHUANIA
GERMANY (E.PRUSSIA)
POLAND
BELORUSSIA
UKRAINE
ROMANIA
BULGARIA
TURKEY
PERSIA
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
HUNGARY
Entente fleet
Murmansk
BRITISH
FRENCH
CANADIANS
ITALIANS
SERBS
Archangel 12 Feb 1918
CANADIANS
AMERICANS
BRITISH
FRENCH
FINNS
Petrozavodsk 17 Jan 1918
L. Onega
L. Ladoga
independence of Finland recognised December 1917
Helsinki
Kronstadt
Petrograd (Lenigrad) 7 Nov 1917
Kornilov's attack on Petrograd September 1917
Revel (Tallinn) 8 Nov 1917
British fleet
Yudenich
Novgorod 27 Nov 1917
Pskov 15 Nov 1917
Riga
LETTS
BALTIC GERMANS
Vologda 8 Feb 1918
Kostroma 15 Dec 1917
Yaroslavl 9 Nov 1917
Ivanovo 7 Nov 1917
Tver (Kalinin) 10 Nov 1917
Nizhny Novgorod (Gorkiy) 10 Nov 1917
Moscow 15 Nov 1917
Vitebsk 9 Nov 1917
Smolensk 12 Nov 1917
Kaluga 11 Dec 1917
Tula 20 Dec 1917
Trans-Siberian Railway
Mogilev 1 Dec 1917
Minsk 7 Nov 1917
Warsaw
Brest-Litovsk
POLES
Gomel 12 Nov 1917
Orel 14 Nov 1917
Tambov 13 Feb 1918
Voronezh 12 Nov 1917
Penza 4 Jan 1918
Saratov 9 Nov 1917
Samara 9 Nov 1917
Orenburg 31 Jan 1918
Vyatka 8 Dec 1917
Perm 14 Nov 1917
Nicholas II and family shot by Bolsheviks July 1918
Yekaterinburg (Sverdlovsk) 8 Nov 1917
Izhevsk 9 Nov 1917
Kolchak 1918-19
Kazan 8 Nov 1917
Ufa 8 Nov 1917
CZECHS
Zhitomir 22 Jan 1918
Kiev 8 Feb 1918
Denikin 1919
Poltava 19 Jan 1918
Kharkov 24 Dec 1917
Don Cassacks 1917-19
Yekaterinoslva (Dnepropetrovsk) 11 Jan 1918
Novocherkassk 25 Feb 1918
Rostov-on-Don 10 Nov 1917
R. Don
Tsaritsyn (Stalingrad) (Volgograd) 27 Nov 1917
Ural Cossack Army 1918-20
R. Volga
Astrakhan 7 Feb 1918
ROMANIANS
BESSARABIA
Kishinev 10 Dec 1917
Nikolayev 27 Jan 1918
Odessa 31 Jan 1918
Wrangel 1920
Cossacks
Sevastopol 29 Dec 1917
Simferopol 26 Jan 1918
Novorossiysk 14 Dec 1917
FRENCH
BRITISH
Entente fleet
Batum
Tiflis (Tbilisi)
Kars
Gallipoli
1919-20
Mensheviks
Baku 15 Nov 1917
Krasnovodsk
Tabriz
1918-19
60°
44°

The Chinese Revolution
1911-1949

By 1911 the imperial government of China was thoroughly discredited, and it only needed an army mutiny at Wuchang to repudiate its authority (map 1). But the republic proclaimed in 1912, with Sun Yat-sen as its first president, was overwhelmed by its inherited problems, and within weeks Sun was displaced by Yuan Shih-k'ai, the most powerful general of the old regime. After Yuan's death in 1916 the government in Peking lost control and power passed into the hands of provincial warlords, whose armies caused untold damage and millions of casualties. Compounding this misery were the expansionist policies of Japan, which had secured control of Shantung and Manchuria in 1915 (page 126), as well as the presence of foreign powers, based in the Treaty Ports, who interfered in Chinese politics and exploited the struggling Chinese economy.

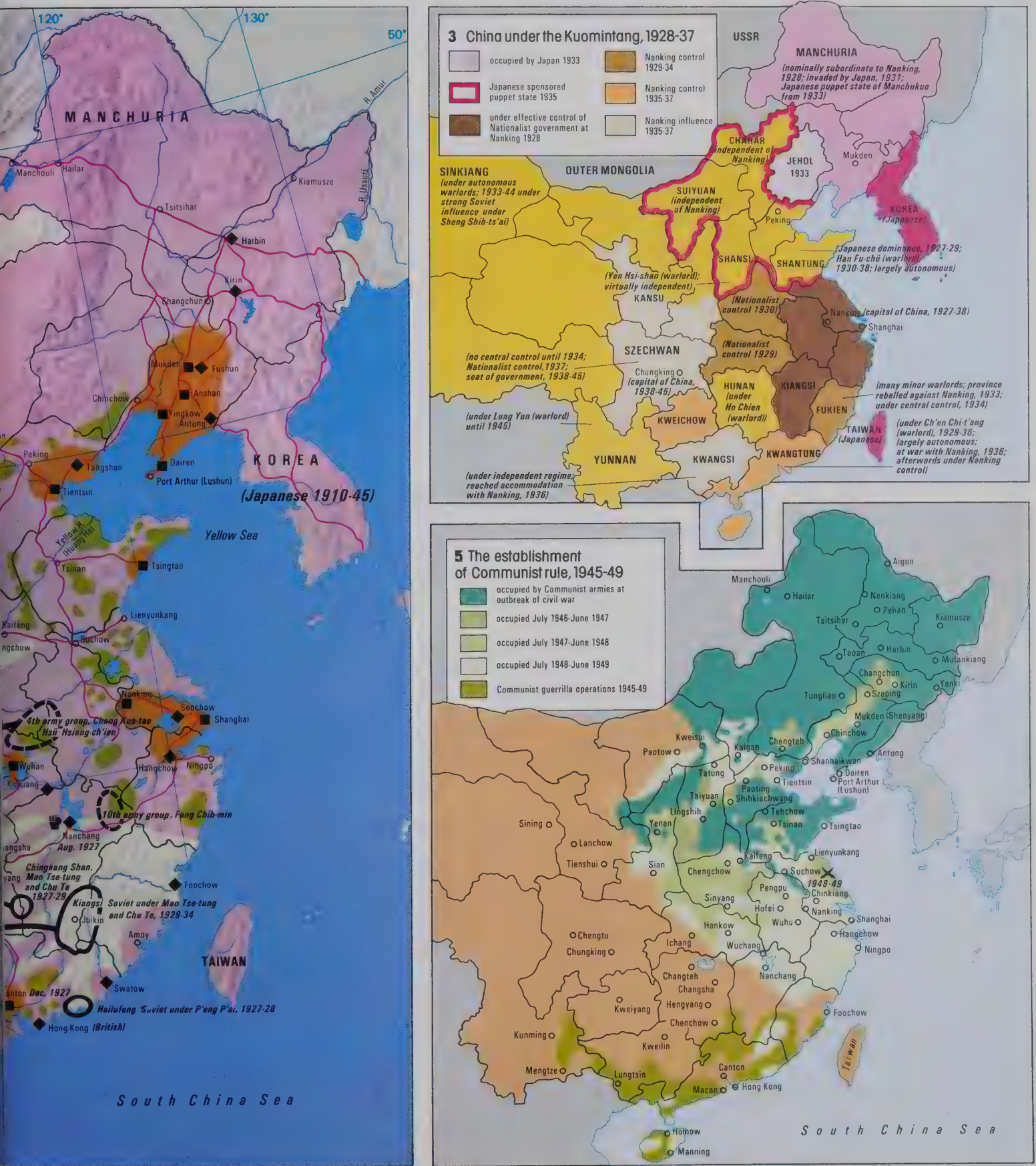
In 1919, when the Paris Peace Conference refused to abrogate Japanese and other foreign privileges, this desperate situation exploded in a massive upsurge of Chinese nationalism, which found vent in the 4 May Movement of 1919, a spontaneous uprising of students and urban workers, which was the real starting point of the Chinese revolution. It provided a new constituency for Sun Yat-sen, who had taken refuge at Canton, and in 1923 Sun reorganised his Nationalist (Kuomintang, KMT) Party, allied with the Chinese Communist Party (CCP, founded in 1921), and prepared to reunite the country. But Sun died in 1925, and it was Chiang Kai-shek, the Moscow-trained general of the KMT army, who led the great Northern Expedition of 1926 which aimed at the elimination of the warlords and the unification of the country (map 2). Helped by peasant and workers' uprisings along its route, it was astonishingly successful, and by April 1927 Chiang established his capital at Nanking. But the uneasy alliance of KMT and CCP could not hold, and in 1927 Chiang turned on his allies, massacring the Communists in Shanghai. Furthermore, the warlords were not entirely eliminated, and





Chiang's direct rule was limited effectively to the lower Yangtze (map 3). Finally, the Japanese, fearing the potential challenge from a reunited China, decided to reinforce their hold in the north. After 1931, when Japan overran Manchuria, Chiang had to meet simultaneously the Japanese threat from without and the Communist threat at home.

Chiang's purge had virtually eliminated the Communists in the cities, but peasant disaffection, arising from his failure to carry out land reform, provided them with new possibilities in the countryside. It was Mao Tse-tung who realised this, and his base at Chingkang Shan in a remote mountainous area was the main, though not the only, seedbed of the revitalised Communist movement. KMT attacks drove Mao to Kiangsi where the most important Soviet was established and where the Communists ruled an area of several million people developing reform programmes as a peasant-based party rather than an urban, proletarian party on the Russian model. Further KMT attacks forced the Communists to abandon Kiangsi and it was on the famous Long March, to Yenan (map 4), where Mao gathered widespread support by his reform programmes and by spearheading resistance to the Japanese invasion, that his peasant-based wing of the party gained ascendancy. The result was that large areas of China passed under Communist control, while Chiang's government, which had withdrawn under Japanese pressure to the remote fastness of Chungking, was unpopular and out of touch. This was the situation in 1945 after the defeat of Japan, though other factors, particularly the growing Soviet-American involvement, played a part. Negotiations for a political settlement broke down and in 1947 open civil war broke out. The Communists defeated the Nationalists in Manchuria and took Peking in January 1949 (map 5). The great battle around Suchow (November 1948–January 1949) opened the way south. On October 1, 1949, the People's Republic was proclaimed, and the Nationalists fled to Taiwan. But the civil war compounded the devastation of the previous decades and China's new rulers were left with a formidable task of reconstruction.



The Ottoman Empire
1805-1923

The decline of the Ottoman Empire, after its revival under the Kuprülü grand-viziers (1656–91), had begun with the Treaty of Carlowitz (1699), when Hungary passed from Ottoman to Habsburg rule (page 78). Under Catherine the Great it came under Russian pressure (page 84). But disintegration only set in seriously during the nineteenth century. An early intimation was Mohammed Ali's establishment of a virtually independent government in Egypt after 1805. But the main factor was Western pressure, political and economic. In 1838 an Anglo-Turkish Commercial Convention forced the empire to open its doors to Western commerce and exploitation, and by 1881 the Turkish state was bankrupt. Nevertheless it was kept alive until 1914 because the European powers feared to create a power vacuum which their rivals could exploit. But there was steady encroachment. France occupied Algeria (1830) and Tunisia (1881); Italy seized Libya and the Dodecanese (1912); and the British occupied Egypt (1882) and controlled Aden and much of the Persian Gulf (map 1). An Armenian bid for independence was savagely repressed (1895), but the Balkan wars of 1912–13 dealt a fatal blow to Turkey's position in Europe, and by 1914 disaffected Arab dynasties were on the edge of revolt.

Turkey's entry into the 1914 war on the side of the Central Powers completed the process of disintegration. The Turks fought well and held the initiative until 1917. An Allied attempt to land at Gallipoli and advance on Constantinople (April 1915) was abandoned with heavy losses (January 1916), and an advance towards Baghdad ended in defeat at Kut el Amara (April 29, 1916). Only the Russians made progress, occupying Turkish Armenia (July 1916), until the Russian revolution restored initiative to the Ottoman armies (map 2). Meanwhile, the British had begun negotiations with dissident Arabs, holding out the prospect of an independent Arab kingdom. The result was the Arab revolt of 1916, which made possible the two-pronged attack which carried British and Arab forces in 1917 to Baghdad and Jerusalem, and eventually to Damascus, Beirut and Aleppo. But now complications set in. While negotiating with the Arabs, the Allied powers had entered into secret agreements for the partition of the Ottoman empire, including the establishment of a Jewish National Home in Palestine (map 3). In October 1918 the French landed troops at Beirut as a preliminary to occupying Syria; in May 1919 Greece occupied Smyrna. In Turkey the humiliating peace terms imposed by the Allied powers produced a strong nationalist reaction under Mustapha Kemal (Atatürk), who fought a long and bitter war against the Greeks (map 4) and liberated Anatolia. The Treaty of Lausanne (1923) acknowledged his success and marked the birth of the new secular Turkish republic. Elsewhere in the Middle East disillusion with the peace settlement laid up a store of anti-Western resentment which boded ill for the future.

The Middle East and North Africa 1800–1923 (below)

Aden Occupied by British from India 1839.
Afghanistan Independent sultanate. Durrani dynasty to 1835, then invasions and influence from British India.
Albania Ottoman province; independent princedom 1912, kingdom 1928.
Algeria French conquest 1830–47.
Armenia Western part in Ottoman Empire, eastern occupied by Russia 1804; independent republic 1918–20, divided between USSR and Turkey.
Azerbaijan Persian until beginning of 19th century; partly under Russian occupation 1803–28; independent republic 1918–20, incorporated into USSR thereafter.
Bahrain Independent sheikdom since late 18th century; British protection since 1820, formalised 1892.
Bessarabia Ottoman province; Russian from 1812; southern part ceded by Russia to Moldavia 1856, taken back by Russia 1878; linked with Romania 1918.
Bosnia-Herzegovina Austrian administration from 1878, annexed 1908; incorporated in Yugoslavia after 1918.
Bukhara Independent khanate; Russian protectorate 1868, full incorporation 1924.
Bulgaria Autonomous Ottoman province 1878; united with Eastern Rumelia, 1885; independent kingdom 1908.
Crete Ottoman province; Egyptian rule 1822–40; autonomous 1898; incorporated in Greece 1913.
Cyprus Ottoman province; British occupation 1878.
Daghestan Persian; Russian occupation completed by 1859.
Dodecanese Ottoman province; Italian occupation 1912.
Eastern Rumelia Ottoman province 1878; incorporated in Bulgaria 1885.
Egypt Ottoman province under Mohammed Ali from 1805; British occupation 1882, protectorate 1914.
Georgia Independent kingdom under intermittent Persian control; incorporated in Russia 1801; independent republic 1918–20, incorporated into USSR 1920.
Greece Ottoman rule until 1821; independent state from 1833; enlarged by additions, in particular Crete (1913) and Macedonia (1913). Smyrna (Izmir) and hinterland briefly occupied 1920–22.
Hejaz Local rulers (Sharifs of Mecca) under Ottoman sovereignty until 1916. Sharifs as independent rulers 1916–24 (see Nejd).
Iraq Ottoman provinces, unified in 1921 as kingdom (Hashimite family) under British mandate.
Kars and Ardahan Ottoman until 1878; Russian from 1878; in Armenian republic 1918–20; re-occupied by Turkey 1920.
Khiva Independent khanate; Russian occupation 1873.
Kokand Independent khanate; Russian occupation 1876.
Kuwait Autonomous sheikdom (Al Sabah family), with Ottoman claim to sovereignty. British protection formalised after 1899.
Lebanon Local princes under Ottoman rule 1861–1914; French occupation from 1918, then mandate.
Libya Local rulers under Ottoman sovereignty until 1835; direct Ottoman rule from 1835; Italian conquest 1911.
Macedonia Ottoman province; divided between Greece, Serbia and Bulgaria 1913.
Montenegro Autonomous region within Ottoman Empire; independent 1878; kingdom 1910; incorporated in Yugoslavia after 1918.
Morocco Independent sultanate; French and Spanish protectorates after 1912.
Muscat and Oman Local rulers from 18th century (Al Bu Said family); British protection formalised in 1891.
Nejd Local rulers (professing Wahabi version of Islam); Egyptian control 1818–40; conflict of Ibn Saud and Ibn Rashid dynasties, with Saudi victory 1921. By 1932, Asir, Hasa, Hejaz and Nejd incorporated in kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
Palestine British occupation from 1917, then mandate with obligation of facilitating creation of Jewish national home.
Persia (Iran) Independent kingdom, British and Russian penetration; agreement on spheres of influence 1907.
Qatar Sheikdom; British protection formalised in 1916.
Romania Ottoman provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia under local rulers; united 1859; independent kingdom 1878.
Serbia Autonomous from early 19th century; independent kingdom 1878; incorporated in Yugoslavia after 1918.
Sudan Under Egyptian rule from 1821; indigenous rule (Mahdiya) early 1880s to 1898; British occupation and Anglo-Egyptian condominium from 1898.
Syria Ottoman province; brief bid for independence under Hashimites 1918–20; French occupation in 1920, then mandate.
Transjordan Part of Ottoman province of Damascus; from 1921 Hashimite princedom under British mandate for Palestine.
Trucial Oman Small sheikdoms under British protection, 1820s onwards.
Tunisia Virtually autonomous province of Ottoman Empire; French protectorate 1881.
Turkey Core of Ottoman Empire, then independent republic 1922.
Yemen Local rulers, holding Zaidi version of Islam, under Ottoman sovereignty; independent after 1918.

Secret agreements among the powers (above)

1/Britain and Russia divided Persia (1907) into spheres of influence, with a neutral zone in between

2/France, Britain and Russia agreed (1915) that Constantinople and the Straits should be Russian

3/The Sykes-Picot Agreement (1916) internationalised Palestine

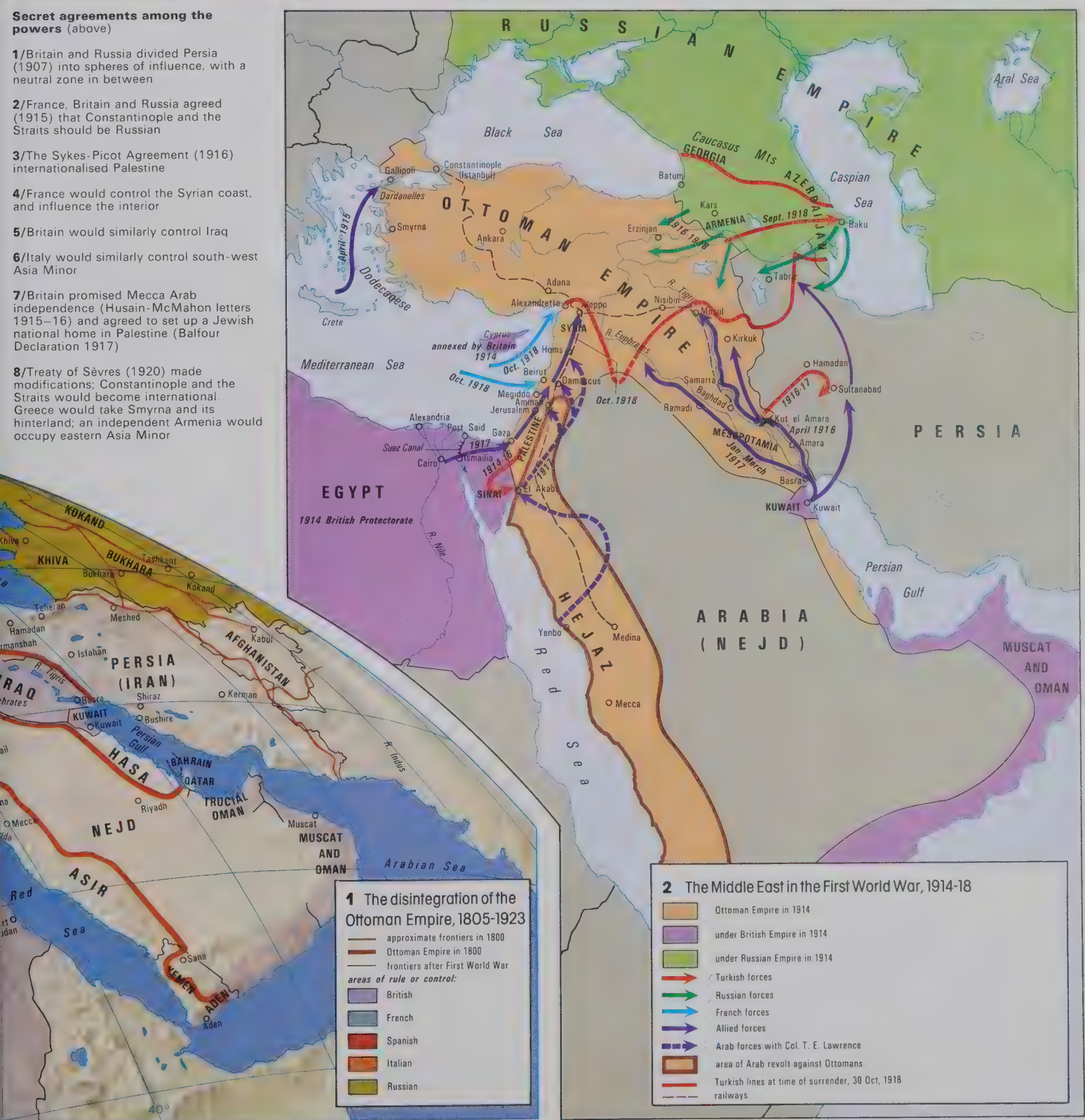
4/France would control the Syrian coast, and influence the interior

5/Britain would similarly control Iraq

6/Italy would similarly control south-west Asia Minor

7/Britain promised Mecca Arab independence (Husain-McMahon letters 1915–16) and agreed to set up a Jewish national home in Palestine (Balfour Declaration 1917)

8/Treaty of Sèvres (1920) made modifications; Constantinople and the Straits would become international. Greece would take Smyrna and its hinterland; an independent Armenia would occupy eastern Asia Minor



Modern Japan, 1868-1941

The Tokugawa shogunate, established in 1609 (page 50), gave Japan two hundred years of peace and prosperity. But a generation before 1868 it was evident that internal tensions were building up and that the *bakufu* (or Shogun's government) in Edo was losing control. Peasant unrest and discontent among impoverished *samurai*, whose position had been undermined by the growth of a money economy, was compounded by British, Russian, French and American pressure for the opening of Japan to foreign trade. A period of complicated manoeuvring ensued, in which the four western feudal domains (*han*), Satsuma, Choshu, Tosa and Hizen, took the lead (map 1). The outcome was the so-called Meiji restoration, when the emperor, supported by dissident elements, moved from Kyoto to Edo, now re-named Tokyo (or eastern capital), displaced the Shogun, and took direct control of government.

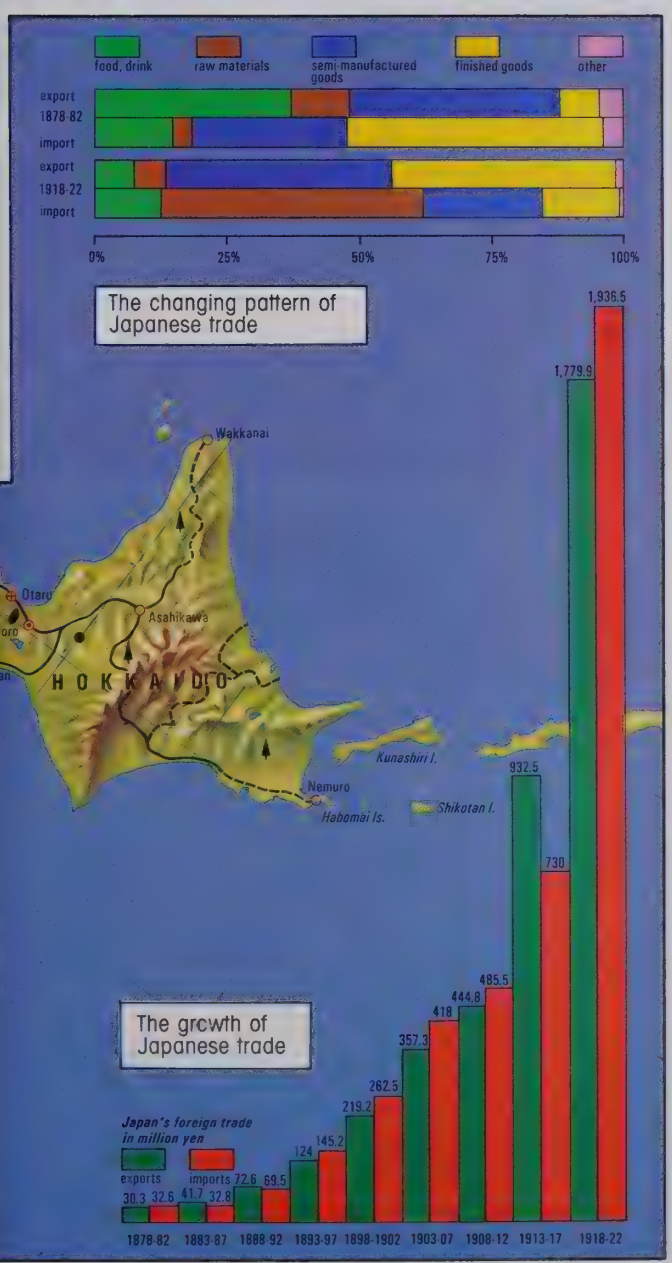
The Meiji restoration of 1868 was in reality a revolution, carried out with the definite aim of modernisation and westernisation. The old feudal structure was replaced in 1871 by a modern system of prefectures. Samurai privileges were abolished (1873), though samurai from Choshu had a leading place in the new conscript army. A western style peerage (1884), cabinet government (1885) and a two-chamber parliament (1889) laid the foundations of political stability; a national education system was instituted (1872) providing teaching for 90 per cent of children by 1900. At the same time economic development was taken in hand (map 2). The first railway was opened in 1872, and by 1906 the main network was completed. Industrialisation proceeded more slowly, beginning effectively only at the end of the 1800s. By 1889 the number of cotton mills had risen from 3 in 1877 to 83, and by 1913 Japanese production dominated the home market and had a substantial foothold abroad, particularly in China. Nevertheless agriculture remained the main employment until after the First World War. The number employed in agriculture fell from 70 per cent of the population in the 1870s to 57 per cent in 1914, but still provided almost all the foodstuffs for a population which rose from 39 million in 1868 to 56 million in 1918.

International recognition of Japan's new status was nevertheless slow in coming. It had been forced in the 1850s to negotiate unequal treaties with the western powers, and it was not until 1894 that foreign consular jurisdiction was abolished and only in 1911 that Tokyo regained tariff autonomy. These concessions were a tribute to Japan's military successes, seen above all in the war with China (1894–95) and in the Russo-Japanese war (map 4). The first overseas ventures, in the Bonin and Ryukyu islands and in Taiwan, were undertaken primarily to still unrest at home, but in 1894 Japan embarked on a full-scale imperialist policy (map 3). Even so, it was forced by the European powers to return all its conquests except Taiwan; but the Anglo-Japanese treaty of 1902, inspired by mutual fear of Russia, was a turning point. In the war with Russia (1904–05), Japan's forces achieved a series of victories culminating in the fall of Port Arthur (January 1905), the battle of Mukden (February–March), and the destruction of the Russian Baltic fleet in the Tsushima Straits (May). After the war the two combatants rapidly reached agreement over a division of spheres of interest, which allowed Japan to annex Korea in 1910. It had embarked on the creation of a Japanese empire on the Asian mainland, and the war of 1914–18 and the Russian revolution (page 120) enabled it to gain a foothold in Shantung and Manchuria. Although once again western pressure compelled it to withdraw, Japan was recognised at the Peace Conference in 1919 as a major power with a permanent seat on the Council of the League of Nations.

During the 1920s Japanese policy veered between cooperation with the west and an inherent anti-foreign feeling, fed by a sense of discrimination. Until 1932 cooperation prevailed, but the impact of the Great Depression (page 130) swung the balance in the opposite direction, and, beginning with the advance into Manchuria in 1931, Japan set out to carve out an empire in East Asia. After the Japanese attack on the Chinese mainland in 1937, tension grew with the United States. The lines of the Second World War were already being drawn. When Germany defeated France and Holland in 1940, Japan's moment seemed to have arrived, and the advance into South-East Asia began (map 5). In spite of astounding initial successes (page 134), it was a gamble that failed. But paradoxically the failure, and the subsequent American occupation, propelled Japan even more decisively into the modern world than the Meiji restoration, socially authoritarian and backward-looking, had done.

RUSSIA
SAKHALIN
KARAFUTO 1905
KURILE IS. 1875
MANCHURIA
Hokkaido
Changchun
Pacific
SOUTH MANCHURIA
Sea of Japan
KWANTUNG (leased territory 1905)
KOREA (CHOSEN) 1910
JAPAN
Honshu
Ocean
Tsingtao
SHANTUNG
Shikoku
Kyushu
BONIN (OGASAWARA) IS. 1873
CHINA
RYUKYU (LOOCHOO) IS. 1872
FUKIEN
Amoy
TAIWAN (FORMOSA) 1895
3 The growth of the Japanese empire, 1872-1918
Japan's possessions at the end of 1875
territorial acquisitions 1894-1914
spheres of Japanese influence in 1918

Harbin
MANCHURIA
Chinese Eastern Railway
R. Liao
South Manchurian Railway
Kirin
Changchun
KIRIN
CHIENTAO
JEHOL
(occupied by Russia 1897-1905)
Vladivostok
FENGTIEN
Fushun
Mukden
Mukden, Feb-March 1905
R. Tumen
Liaoyang
Anshan
CHINA
Hulutao
Newchwang
R. Yalu
Shanhaikuan
Antung
Takushan
Sea of Japan
Port Arthur
fall of Port Arthur, Jan. 1905
Liaotung Peninsula
Pyongyang
Wonsan (Gensan)
Chinnampo
R. Han
Kaesong
Chefoo
Weihaiwei
Seoul (Keijo)
Inchon (Chemulpo)
SHANTUNG
KOREA
Kiaochow
Tsingtao
Yellow Sea
Masampo
Pusan (Fusan)
Japan destroys Russian fleet May 1905
Mokpo
Shimonoseki
Port Hamilton Is.
Tsushima Strait
JAPAN
Quelpart I.
Sasebo
4 The Russo-Japanese War 1904-05
movements of Japanese forces 1904-05
railways in 1918


food, drink
raw materials
semi-manufactured goods
finished goods
other
export 1878-82
import
export 1918-22
import
0%
25%
50%
75%
100%
The changing pattern of Japanese trade
Wakkanai
Otaru
Asahikawa
HOKKAIDO
Kunashiri I.
Nemuro
Habomai Is.
Shikotan I.
The growth of Japanese trade
Japan's foreign trade in million yen
exports
imports
30.3
32.6
41.7
32.8
72.6
89.5
124
145.2
219.2
262.5
357.3
418
444.8
485.5
730
932.5
1,779.9
1,936.5
1878-82
1883-87
1888-92
1893-97
1898-1902
1903-07
1908-12
1913-17
1918-22

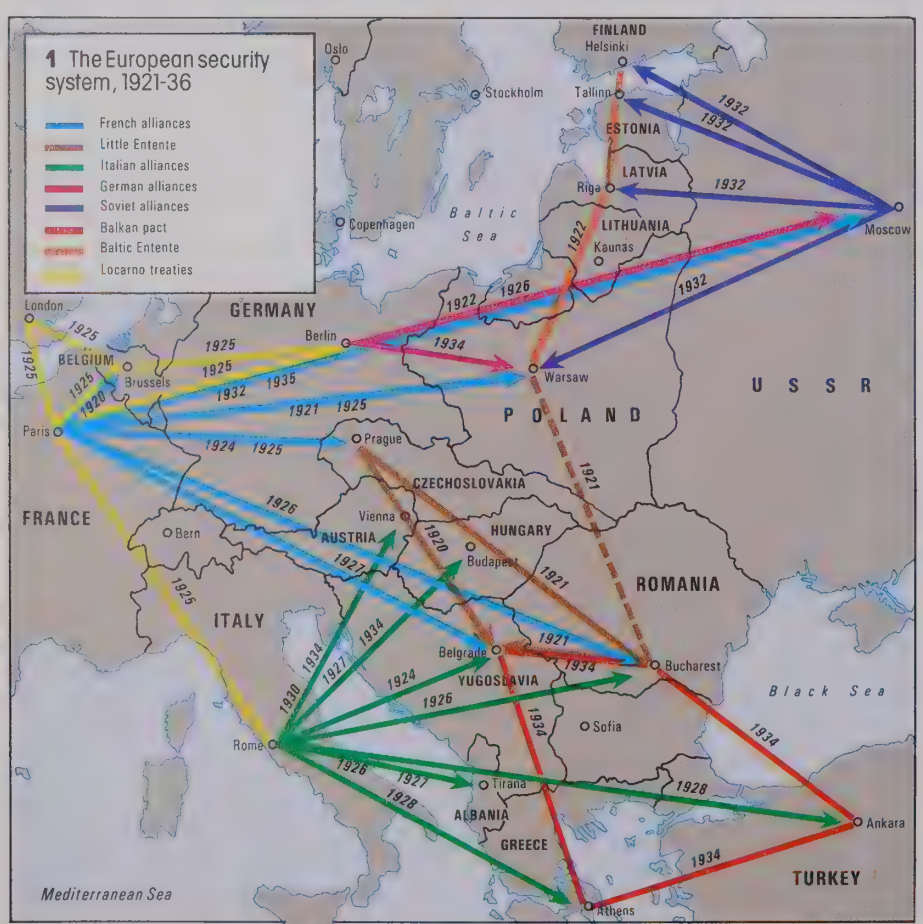
U S S R
MANCHURIA
Manchukuo (Japanese Protectorate proclaimed 1933)
Trans-Siberian railway
Nomonhan 1939
Vladivostok
Changkufeng 1938
Japanese forces defeated by Red Army under Zhukov
MONGOLIA
Mukden
Sea of Japan
Tokyo
Russian support for China 1935
KOREA
Yellow River (Huang Ho)
Peking (capital to 1911, from 1949)
Tientsin
Yellow Sea
1938
1932
1941
CHINA
Nanking (capital 1912-37, 46-49)
Shanghai 1937
Ryukyu Is.
R. Yangtze
Nanchang
Chungking (capital 1937-46)
INDIA
Amoy
Taiwan (Formosa)
Swatow
Burma Road
Canton 1938
Hong Kong
7 Dec. 1941
Pacific Ocean
Hanoi 1940
Franco-Japanese agreement permitting occupation
PHILIPPINE IS. (U.S.A.)
Mandalay
BURMA
FRENCH INDO-CHINA
South China Sea
Manila
SIAM
under Japanese influence
Bangkok
1941
Saigon
5 Japanese expansion, 1931-41
Japan 1928
expansion to 1933
expansion to 1941
Chinese capitals
Japanese conflict with USSR
Japanese attacks
Japanese support for independence movements
Allied bases

European political problems, 1919-1939

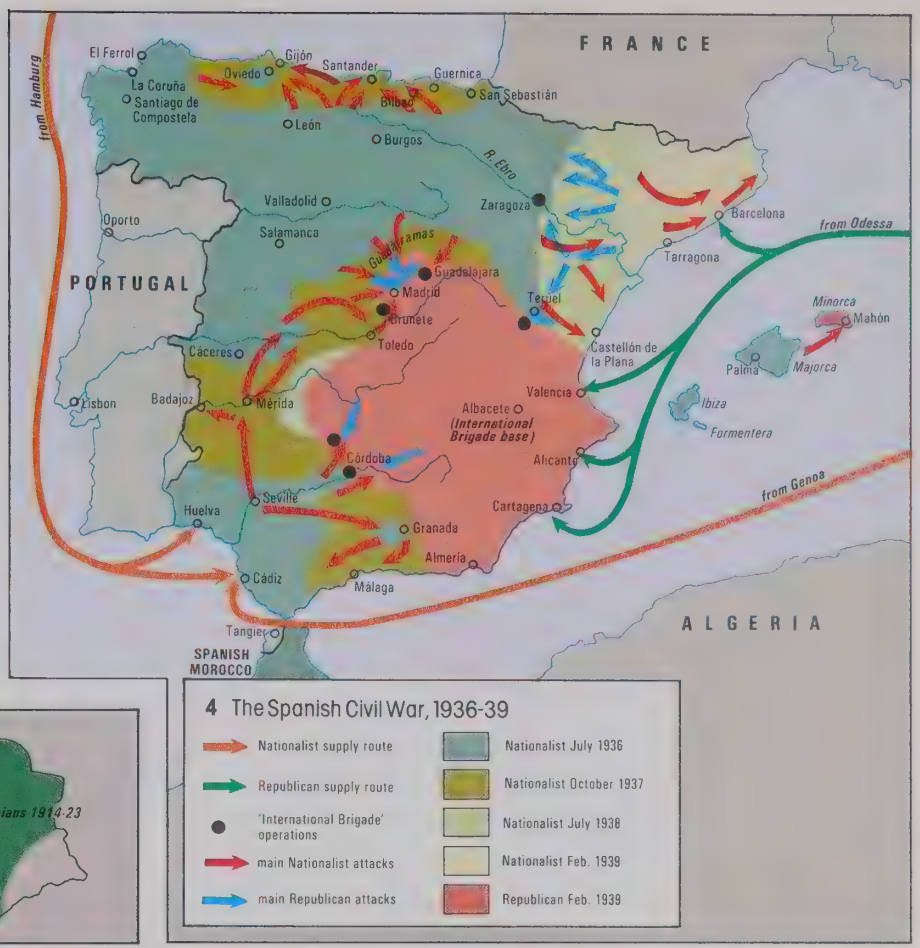
The First World War shattered the equipoise of 1914. The long-term goal after 1918 was a return to 'normalcy', but it was always an illusion. Not merely had the collapse of the Habsburg Empire, the defeat of Germany, and the Bolshevik Revolution completely altered the balance of power in Europe, but the pre-war economic equilibrium also was destroyed. All the victorious powers were in debt to the United States, and Great Britain, which had largely financed its allies, never fully recovered. These facts weighed heavily at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919, but the dominant fact was probably fear of the spread of revolution from Russia. This accounts for the relatively lenient treatment of Germany, which suffered only minor territorial losses, except for the restoration to the newly independent Poland of the lands seized in the partitions at the end of the eighteenth century. The real problem facing the peacemakers was the tangle of nationalities in Europe. Finland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania were detached as independent republics from Russia, which was not represented at the Conference, and Russia also lost Bessarabia to Romania and a large part of White Russia to Poland after the Russo-Polish war of 1920. However, the independent republics of White Russia, Georgia, Armenia and Azerbaijan were brought back into the Soviet Union in 1921 (map 2). The main beneficiary of the peace settlement was Romania, which, in addition to Bessarabia, acquired the Dobruja from Bulgaria and Transylvania from Hungary. But the projected dismemberment of Turkey was thwarted by the national revival under Mustapha Kemal Atatürk (page 124), and in 1923 the new republic was recognised by the Treaty of Lausanne.

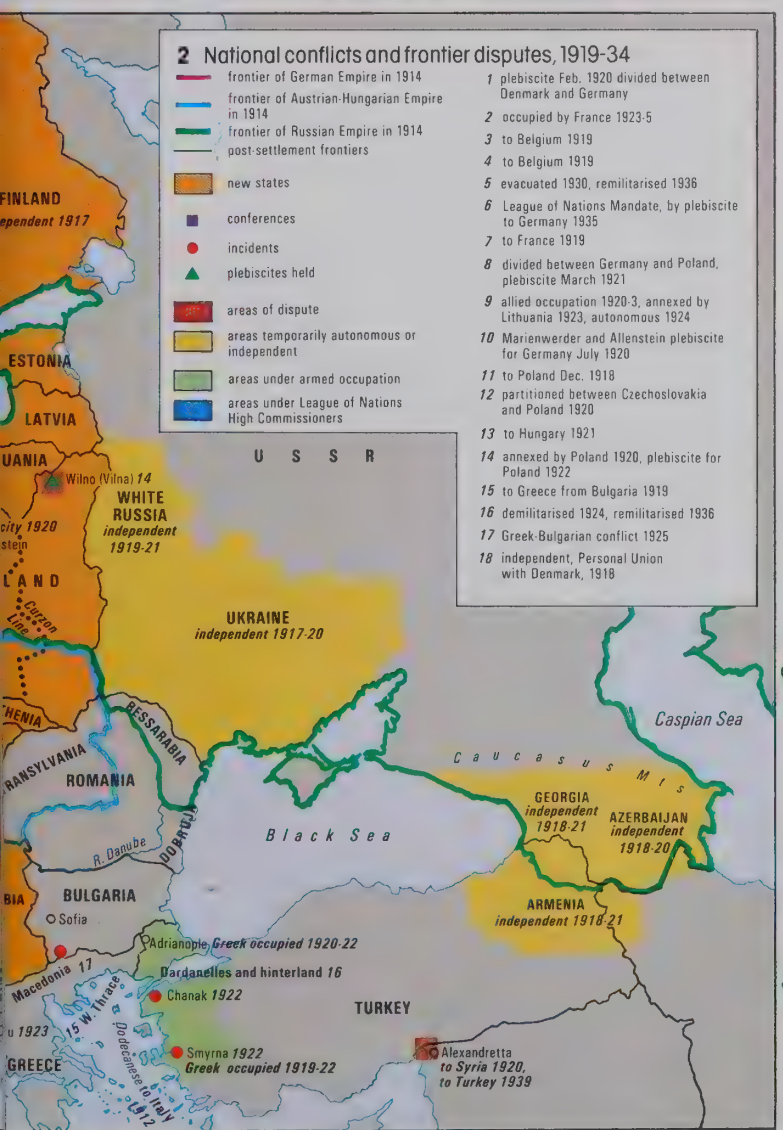
The peace treaties left dissatisfied minorities everywhere, and there were widespread movements of refugees, the most extreme case being the wholesale exchange of populations negotiated after the Greco-Turkish war of 1920–22 (map 3). More important politically, they also created a lasting sense of injustice and discrimination. It was inconceivable that either Germany or Russia, once they recovered their strength, would accept a position of inferiority. In addition, there was the irredentism of Hungary, the country which had suffered most from the peace settlement, which was exploited, after 1927, by Mussolini's Fascist Italy, which hoped in this way to build up for itself a dominant position in the Danubian basin. Thus Europe was divided between revisionists and anti-revisionists, and the only hope for the latter was to support the status quo by a system of military pacts. France, with its alliances with Poland (1921) and Czechoslovakia (1924), underpinning the 'Little Entente' between Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia and Romania (1921), was the heart and soul of this security system (map 1). It operated effectively until the Great Depression (page 130) and the instability it engendered in France, which undercut France's credibility among its East European clients. When Poland signed a Neutrality Pact with Germany in 1934, it marked the beginning of the collapse of the French security system.

The Locarno treaties (1925), whereby Germany recognised the post-war frontier settlements with France and Belgium, marked the end of the long years of frustration, civil disorder and conflict which had bedevilled Europe since 1918. Germany was welcomed back into the community of nations; so also, after 1925, was Soviet Russia. But the stabilisation of 1925–29 was more apparent than real. With the exception of Czechoslovakia, none of the new states of eastern Europe was economically viable, and the onset of the Depression exposed their weaknesses and left them a prey to German infiltration. Spain also, where the monarchy had been superseded by a republic in 1931, was caught up in its repercussions, which brought a confrontation of left and right and undermined the republican government. The result, in 1936, was civil war (map 4), in which eventually the rebels under General Franco, supported by Italy and Germany, were successful. The failure of France and England to aid the republic discredited them in the eyes of their allies and encouraged Italian and German aggression. Hitler's repudiation of the Locarno treaties, followed by the annexation of Austria (1938) was a clear sign of his intentions; but the destruction of Czechoslovakia, abetted by Poland and Hungary, and the Italian annexation of Albania (1939), further exposed the ambivalence of the western powers (map 5). Whether an alliance with the Soviet Union would have halted the aggressors is a matter of dispute. However, when negotiations between the Soviet Union and the Western powers broke down in 1939, and the Russians, fearing a war of two fronts with Germany and Japan, signed the notorious Nazi-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact, the collapse of the unstable European balance of 1919–39 was inevitable.



3 The refugee problem
Germans
Poles
Czechs
Slovaks
Hungarians
White Russians
Ukrainians/ Ruthenians
Romanians
Bulgarians
Turks
Albanians
Macedonians
Greeks
Serbs/ Montenegrins
Bosnians
Slovenes
Croats
Italians
FINLAND
ESTONIA
LATVIA
LITHUANIA
POLAND
UKRAINE
RUSSIA
ROMANIA
BULGARIA
GREECE
1917-22 100,000, Russian refugees from Bolshevik Revolution
200,000, Latvians, Estonians, Lithuanians
1,000,000 Poles
650,000 Russian refugees from Bolshevik Revolution
90,000 Germans
120,000
200,000 Hungarians 1919-24
80,000 Turks 1913-39
50,000 Bulgarians
110,000 Turks 1913-39
20,000 Turks
60,000 Greeks
350,000 Armenians 1914-23 to Europe
300,000 Greeks
1,000,000 Greeks 1922-24
350,000 Turks
Black Sea


FRANCE
PORTUGAL
SPANISH MOROCCO
ALGERIA
from Hamburg
from Odessa
from Genoa
El Ferrol
La Coruña
Santiago de Compostela
Oviedo
Gijón
Santander
Bilbao
Guernica
San Sebastián
León
Burgos
R. Ebro
Valladolid
Oporto
Salamanca
Zaragoza
Barcelona
Tarragona
Guadalajara
Madrid
Teruel
Minorca
Mahón
Palma
Majorca
Ibiza
Formentera
Cáceres
Toledo
Castellón de la Plana
Lisbon
Badajoz
Mérida
Valencia
Albacete (International Brigade base)
Córdoba
Alicante
Seville
Huelva
Cartagena
Granada
Almería
Cádiz
Málaga
Tangier
4 The Spanish Civil War, 1936-39
Nationalist supply route
Republican supply route
'International Brigade' operations
main Nationalist attacks
main Republican attacks
Nationalist July 1936
Nationalist October 1937
Nationalist July 1938
Nationalist Feb. 1939
Republican Feb. 1939


2 National conflicts and frontier disputes, 1919-34
frontier of German Empire in 1914
frontier of Austrian-Hungarian Empire in 1914
frontier of Russian Empire in 1914
post-settlement frontiers
new states
conferences
incidents
plebiscites held
areas of dispute
areas temporarily autonomous or independent
areas under armed occupation
areas under League of Nations High Commissioners
1 plebiscite Feb. 1920 divided between Denmark and Germany
2 occupied by France 1923-5
3 to Belgium 1919
4 to Belgium 1919
5 evacuated 1930, remilitarised 1936
6 League of Nations Mandate, by plebiscite to Germany 1935
7 to France 1919
8 divided between Germany and Poland, plebiscite March 1921
9 allied occupation 1920-3, annexed by Lithuania 1923, autonomous 1924
10 Marienwerder and Allenstein plebiscite for Germany July 1920
11 to Poland Dec. 1918
12 partitioned between Czechoslovakia and Poland 1920
13 to Hungary 1921
14 annexed by Poland 1920, plebiscite for Poland 1922
15 to Greece from Bulgaria 1919
16 demilitarised 1924, remilitarised 1936
17 Greek-Bulgarian conflict 1925
18 independent, Personal Union with Denmark, 1918
FINLAND
ESTONIA
LATVIA
U S S R
Wilno (Vilna) 14
WHITE RUSSIA independent 1919-21
UKRAINE independent 1917-20
Curzon Line
BESSARABIA
ROMANIA
Caucasus Mts
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
GEORGIA independent 1918-21
AZERBAIJAN independent 1918-20
ARMENIA independent 1918-21
R. Danube
BULGARIA
Sofia
Adrianople Greek occupied 1920-22
Dardanelles and hinterland 16
Chanak 1922
TURKEY
Smyrna 1922 Greek occupied 1919-22
Alexandretta to Syria 1920, to Turkey 1939
GREECE
Dodecanese to Italy 1912

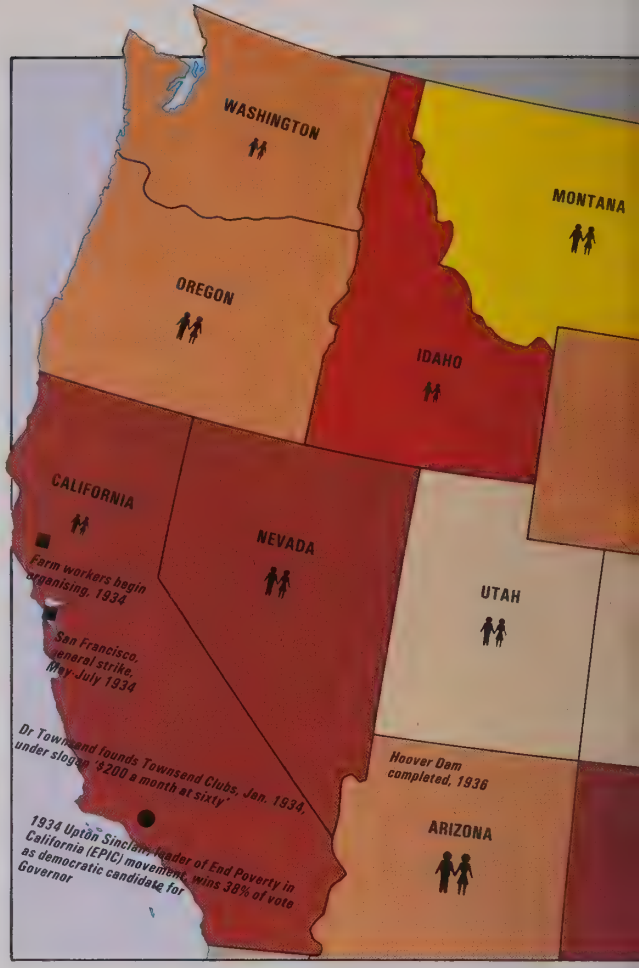
5 German and Italian expansion, 1935-39
1 Czech territory given to Germany by Munich agreement Sept. 1938
2 Czech territory given to Hungary Nov. 1938
3 occupied by Hungary March 1939
4 Czech territory taken by Poland Sept. 1939
5 annexed by Germany 1938
6 plebiscite to join Germany 1935
7 Italian expansion
8 annexation of Memel March 1939
North Sea
Baltic Sea
Memel
LITHUANIA
Danzig
NETHERLANDS
R. Elbe
Berlin
R. Vistula
Warsaw
USSR
(reoccupied by Germany 1936)
Ems
Saar 6
GERMANY
POLAND
R. Oder
FRANCE
Prague
Teschen
R. Rhine
Munich
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
Ruthenia
Vienna
SWITZERLAND
AUSTRIA
Budapest
HUNGARY
ROMANIA
YUGOSLAVIA
R. Danube
Corsica
Rome
ITALY
Adriatic Sea
Sardinia
Mediterranean Sea
Sicily
ALBANIA (annexed by Italy 1939)
ERITREA
Addis Ababa
ETHIOPIA (conquered by Italy 1935-36)
ITALIAN SOMALILAND
KENYA
Mogadishu
Indian Ocean
Italian campaigns 1935-36

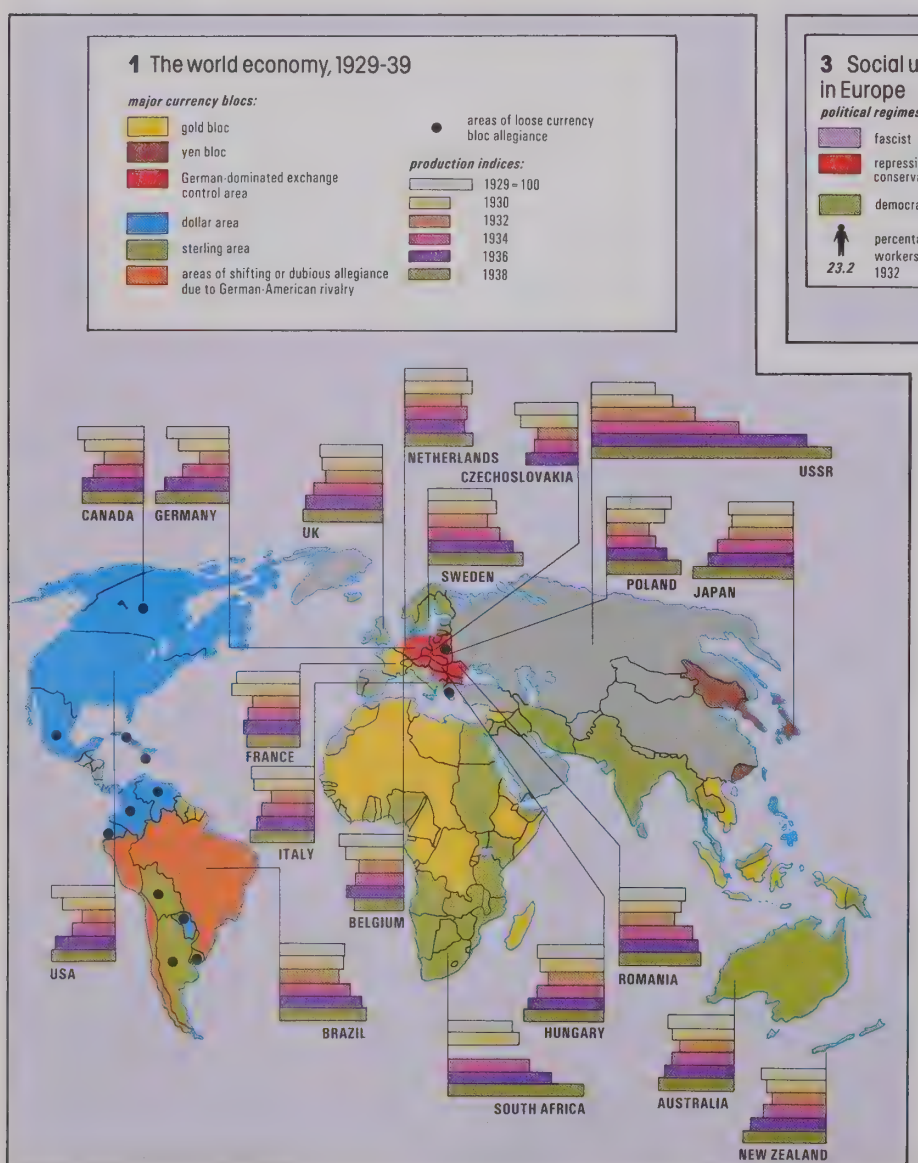
The Great Depression
1929-1939

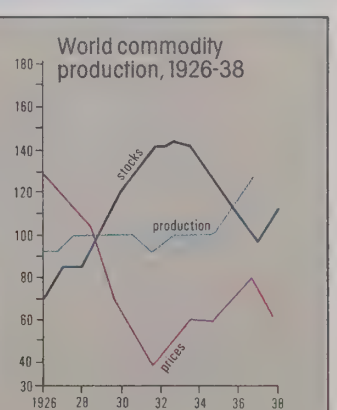
After 1925 it appeared that the disorders of the post-war world had been overcome and a period of relative stability and prosperity had begun. The Great Depression quickly dispelled this illusion. Conventionally its starting point was the financial crash on Wall Street in October 1929; but this was only the manifestation of deeper weaknesses in the world economy. In the United States business was in trouble long before the crash. Worldwide, commodity prices had been falling since 1926, impairing the capacity of exporters such as Australia to buy products from Europe and the United States. The German economy also was faltering by 1928. However, more important than the causes of the depression were its consequences. These were almost instantaneous, although it was only after 1930 that dislocation reached its peak. Its most arresting manifestation was unemployment which reached record heights in 1932. In many industrial countries over a quarter of the labour force was thrown out of work. Industrial production fell to 53 per cent of its 1929 level in Germany and the United States, and world trade sank to 35 per cent of its 1929 value. Attempts to solve the problem only made things worse. As early as 1930 the United States imposed the Hawley-Smoot Tariff, the highest in its history. The United Kingdom responded in 1932 by negotiating the Ottawa Agreements, a series of preferential tariffs for the Commonwealth. Another expedient was competitive devaluation. After England left the Gold Standard in 1931, country after country followed suit and the result was the development of closed currency blocs (map 1), which inhibited international trade still further.

Economic nationalism fostered political nationalism, just as unemployment and the erosion of middle-class living standards fostered political extremism. The fall of the Hamaguchi government in Japan in 1931 marked the end of constitutional democracy and the beginning of Japanese aggression in Manchuria (page 126). In Germany, Brüning's deflationary policies, raising unemployment from under 3 million in 1930 to 6 million two years later, paved the way for Hitler. Hitler's accession to power in January 1933 was followed by Dollfuss's dictatorship in Austria, and eastern Europe, with the exception of Czechoslovakia, quickly followed suit (map 3). France remained precariously democratic until 1940, and in the United Kingdom, where a right-wing 'national' government won a huge majority in 1931, Mosley's fascist movement made little headway. But even here and in the United States, where F. D. Roosevelt was elected president in 1932 with a promise of a 'New Deal', fascist movements exercised considerable pressure (map 2). Only the Soviet Union, isolated from the world economy, was able to sustain economic growth (map 1) – a fact which was to be of cardinal importance after 1941. Roosevelt's New Deal made initial progress, but faltered after 1936 when a new phase of economic down-turn began. By 1939 the United States had not regained the level of industrial output of 1929, and only the Second World War, and the boost it gave to production pulled it out of depression.

The effects of the depression also hit the primary producing countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America. Here, as the crisis radicalised peasants and workers, nationalist and revolutionary movements gained new bases of support. In this respect, as in many others, the Great Depression was the catalyst of the modern world.







United States statistics, 1930-38

	unemployment (no. in 000's)	Federal budget surplus + or deficit − (millions of $)	days lost through strikes (000's)	no. of union members (000's)
1930	4,340	+737	3,320	3,632
1932	12,060	−2,735	10,500	3,226
1934	11,340	−3,689	19,600	3,249
1936	9,030	−4,424	13,900	4,164
1938	10,390	−1,176	9,150	8,265

The War in the West
1939-1945

Hitler's accession to power in 1933 added a new dimension to international politics. He was held back at first by Germany's diplomatic isolation and by the need to put the shattered economy back on its feet. But by 1936 this phase was over. The re-occupation of the Rhineland, the denunciation of the Locarno treaties (page 128), the Rome-Berlin axis, and the anti-Comintern Pact with Japan, demonstrated the new thrust of German policy. Nevertheless Hitler hoped to get his way by threats and bluster rather than by war, and the unopposed annexation of Austria and the dismemberment of Czechoslovakia in 1938 seemed to prove him right. When in the following year he turned against Poland he expected that England and France would once again give way, and believed that the notorious Nazi-Soviet pact of August 23, 1939, would deter the Western powers from intervention. But this time Hitler miscalculated. When German troops invaded Poland (September 1, 1939), England and France declared war, though they did nothing to aid the Poles.

For the first three years the German armies, with their *Blitzkrieg* strategy, were extraordinarily successful (map 1). After the fall of Poland Hitler halted, hoping that the Western powers would negotiate a compromise peace. Then, in April 1940, he launched his attack in the west, overran Denmark and Norway, and turned against France, which was knocked out of the war before the end of June. But the new Churchill government in London refused to concede defeat, and Hitler launched a major air offensive, intended to prepare the way for invasion. The victory of the Royal Air Force in the Battle of Britain forced him on September 17, 1940, to call off the projected invasion. Instead, Hitler decided to attack Soviet Russia. The directive for 'Operation Barbarossa' was issued in December 1940, the invasion of Russia launched on June 22, 1941. It nearly succeeded. Before the tide turned, German armies were outside Moscow and Leningrad and had overrun southern Russia to the Black Sea and the Caucasus.

Meanwhile two other events intervened. One was the lack of success of Italy, which had entered the war in 1940, which forced Hitler, in 1941, to divert troops to conquer Yugoslavia and Greece and to reinforce the African front. Secondly the United States, entering the war in 1941 (page 134), supplied Britain and Russia with much needed arms and equipment, and also helped to defeat the German submarine campaign in the Atlantic (map 3). The British victory at El Alamein (October 1942), the subsequent capitulation of the Italian and German armies in Africa (May 1943), the Anglo-American invasion of Sicily and then Italy, and the fall of Mussolini (July 1943), were major Allied successes. But it was the great Russian victory at Stalingrad (January 1943) that was decisive. The Germans' last major offensive in the east at Kursk failed in July 1943. Thereafter they fought a stubborn defensive war (map 2), but after the Anglo-American landings in northern France (June 1944) and the opening of the Second Front, the ring was closed, and the bases were lost for the 'secret weapons' which Hitler hoped would force the British to capitulate. The Ardennes offensive (December 1944) was a final attempt to break out in the west; but by now the Allies held the initiative. A major Soviet offensive against East Prussia opened in January 1945, and by April Berlin was under assault. On April 30 Hitler committed suicide, and on May 7 his successor, Admiral Doenitz, surrendered unconditionally. The costs were appalling: 15 million military and 35 million civilians had perished, 20 million of whom were Soviet citizens. Some 6 million Jews were exterminated in concentration camps or otherwise. Anglo-American saturation bombing reduced many German cities to rubble, and 25 million Russians were left homeless. Europe was in ruins, and already the differences between the victorious powers, which were to darken the post-war years (page 136), were visible.

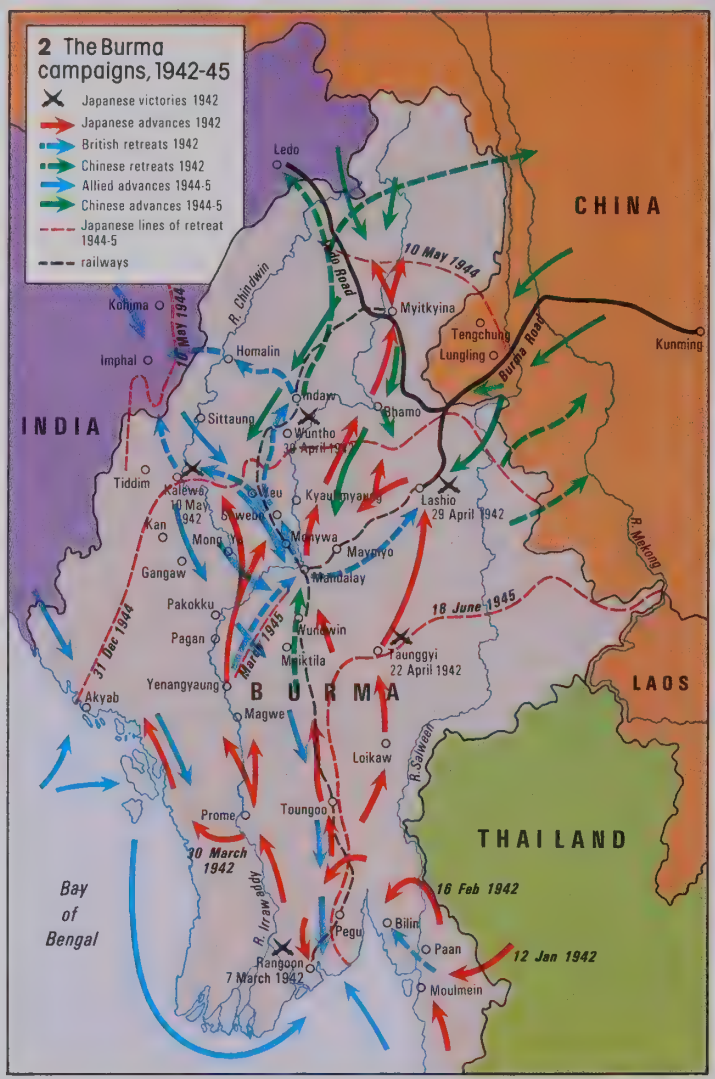
3 The battle of the Atlantic, 1941-45
Allied shipping sunk by U-Boats:
3 Sept. 1939-6 Dec. 1941
7 Dec. 1941-18 Sept. 1943
19 Sept. 1943-8 May 1945
Allied shore-based air cover by 1941
Allied shore-based air cover by 1945
CANADA
USA
SOUTH AMERICA
Atlantic Ocean
AFRICA
EUROPE
2 The defeat of Germany, 1943-45
'Grossdeutsches Reich' 1942
Axis attacks
Axis withdrawal
major battles with date
cities under heavy air attack
Allied attacks
commando raids
airborne landings
partisan/resistance movements
V1 launching sites
V2 launching sites
NORWAY
FINLAND
SWEDEN
ESTONIA
LATVIA
LITHUANIA
DENMARK
U S S R
Baltic Sea
North Sea
GERMANY
POLAND
E. PRUSSIA
HOLLAND
BELGIUM
SWITZERLAND
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
SLOVAKIA
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
U K R A I N E
Transnistria
ROMANIA
CROATIA
SERBIA
MONTE-NEGRO
ALBANIA
BULGARIA
GREECE
ITALY
TURKEY
SYRIA
IRAQ
IRAN
LEBANON
PALESTINE
TRANSJORDAN
SAUDI ARABIA
LIBYA
EGYPT
Cyrenaica
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Caucasus Mts.
Mediterranean Sea
Petsamo
Murmansk
Archangel
Oslo
Stockholm
Helsinki
Vyborg
Leningrad
Lake Ladoga
Narva
Novgorod
Riga
Velikiye Luki
Rzhev
Moscow
Vyazma
Tula
Kaunas
Königsberg
Flensburg
Copenhagen
Lübeck
Hamburg
Bremen
Hanover
Stettin
Berlin
Torgau
Dresden
Cologne
Düsseldorf
Frankfurt
Mannheim
Stuttgart
Metz
Prague
Bialystok
Warsaw
Minsk
Mogilev
Bryansk
Orel
Gomel
Kursk
Voronezh
Kharkov
Stalingrad
Kiev
Lemberg
Tarnopol
Krivoy Rog
Stalino
Rostov
Astrakhan
Jassy
Odessa
Kerch
Crimea
Sebastopol
Ordzhonikidze
Batumi
Vienna
Budapest
Debrecen
Munich
Milan
Trieste
Zagreb
Genoa
Rimini
Zara
Sarajevo
Belgrade
Ploesti
Bucharest
Livorno
Florence
Rome
Anzio
Cassino
Naples
Salerno
Bari
Taranto
Sofia
Kotor
Istanbul
Salonika
Athens
Ankara
Messina
Sicily
Sardinia
Corsica
Bizerta
Tunis
Pantelleria
Malta
Crete
Rhodes
Cyprus
Tripoli
Benghazi
Tobruk
Bardia
El Agheila
Alexandria
El Alamein
Cairo
Carpathian Mts.
R. Rhine
R. Elbe
R. Oder
R. Vistula
R. Bug
R. Dniester
R. Pruth
R. Dnieper
R. Don
R. Donets
R. Volga
R. Po
R. Danube
1944
1944-45
1941-44
1941-42
1942-43
1943-44
Feb.-April 1945
May 1945
Sept. 1944
Dec. 1944
April 1945
June-Aug. 1944
June-Aug. 1943
Sept.-Oct. 1943
Nov. 1942-Feb. 1943
Dec. 1941
July 1943
taken June 1944
Jan.-March 1944
Feb.-May 1943
British offensive 23 Oct. 1942
Oct.-Nov. 1942
Jan.-June 1942

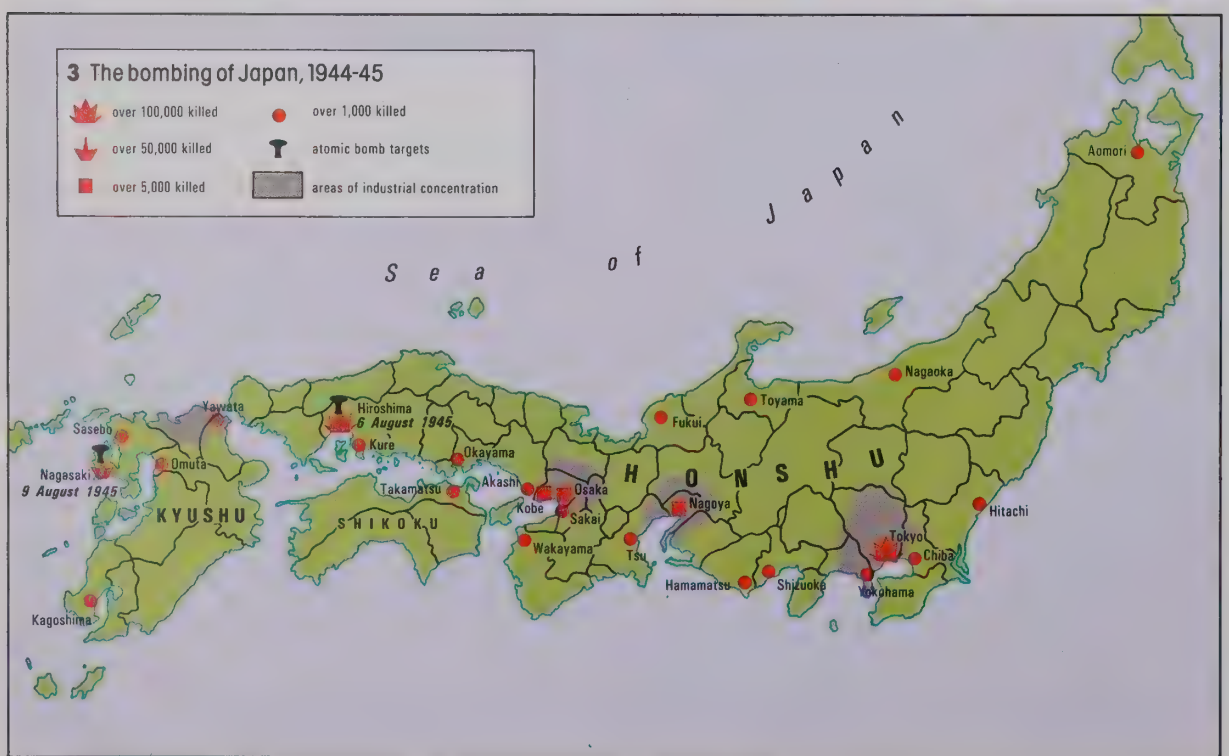
The War in Asia and the Pacific, 1941-1945

In 1941 the war in the Far East, which had begun in 1937 (page 126), merged with the war in Europe, and the Second World War began. This had been foreseen as early as 1936 by the Chinese Communist leader, Mao Tse-tung, when he warned the West that Japanese policy was directed not only against China but also against all countries with interests in the Pacific. But England and France, preoccupied with the threat from Nazi Germany, had few forces to spare for the Far East, and in the United States isolationism was still powerful. The decisive turning point came with the German victory in Europe in May, 1940, which placed the French, British and Dutch colonies at the mercy of Japan. A Tripartite Pact with Germany and Italy (1940) and a Neutrality Pact with the Soviet Union (1941) prepared the way for a Japanese advance south. The only question was whether the United States could be neutralised. When this proved impossible, the surprise attack on Pearl Harbor was prepared. It took place on December 7, 1941, bringing the United States into the war.

Pearl Harbor temporarily crippled the American Pacific Fleet, and the Japanese advanced in three major directions: against the Philippines and the Dutch East Indies to secure essential war materials, against continental Asia (Malaya, Burma, India), and into Oceania (Guam, New Guinea, the Bismarck Archipelago and the Solomon Islands) to protect the central thrust. Japan's successes were spectacular (map 1). Singapore, the British base, fell on February 15, 1942, and Burma was overrun in March and April (map 2). The Dutch capitulated in March and the U.S. base at Corregidor on May 6. Within six months Japan had made itself master of virtually the whole of South-East Asia. But by the autumn of 1942 the United States had recovered. On August 7, 1942, American forces under General MacArthur landed at Guadalcanal (Solomon Islands), and the attack on the Japanese perimeter began. It was an arduous slogging match, leapfrogging from island to island, and it was not until April 1944 that the Japanese abandoned their southern base at Rabaul. More decisive were the great naval battles which cut Japanese supply lines and prevented reinforcement, as well as winning new forward bases for American ground and air forces. The battle of the Coral Sea (May 1942) was indecisive, though it halted the Japanese advance; but the American victories at Midway (June 1942) and Leyte Gulf (October 1944) eliminated the Japanese navy as an effective fighting force. They also enabled the United States to re-occupy the Gilbert and Marshall Islands, Saipan and Guam, and to begin the reconquest of the Philippines (October 1944–February 1945).

By the middle of 1944 it was evident that Japan had lost the war. In May 1944 British and Indian troops, advancing from Imphal, began the reconquest of Burma (map 2), and American aircraft based in China began attacks on the Japanese mainland. After the American occupation of Iwo Jima (February 1945) and of Okinawa (April–May 1945) the air offensive was stepped up (map 3). Three-quarters of Tokyo and many other industrial cities were destroyed, but the Japanese fighting spirit remained unbroken. It was in these circumstances that President Truman, who had succeeded President Roosevelt, decided to use the atom-bomb. On August 6, 1945, the first atom-bomb was dropped on Hiroshima, a second three days later on Nagasaki. Simultaneously Russia declared war on Japan. The next day an Imperial Conference declared for peace, and on September 2 Japan capitulated. Nevertheless the consequences of the Pacific War were epoch-making. By exposing the fragility of the colonial regimes, Japan gave new impetus to the anti-imperial revolt of Asia, which would be a dominant feature of the post-war world.





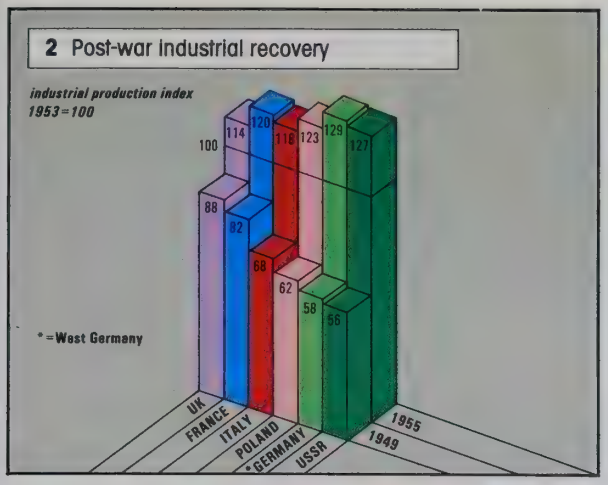
SOVIET UNION
Sea of Okhotsk
Kamchatka
Bering Sea
Commander Is
Aleutian Is
Attu I
Kiska I
Adak I
Amchitka I
Dutch Harbor
Chita
9 Aug 1945 Soviet Army attacks
Sakhalin
Khabarovsk
KARAFUTO
MANCHURIA (MANCHUKUO)
INNER MONGOLIA
Mukden
Peking
Tientsin
Dairen
Gensan
Sea of Japan
Hokkaido
Honshu
JAPAN
Tokyo
Kuriles
Japanese perimeter 1868 and Sept 1895
Japanese perimeter Aug 1945
Japanese perimeter Nov 1941
KOREA
Keijo
Fusan
Tsingtao
Kaifeng
Hiroshima
Shikoku
Nagasaki
Kyushu
Nanking
Shanghai
East China Sea
Japanese perimeter Oct 1944
Japanese perimeter July 1937
Japanese perimeter March 1944
Japanese perimeter July 1942
planned Japanese perimeter
Midway
3/5 June 1942 Japanese forces repulsed
Okinawa
17 May-14 Aug 1945 direct air attack on Japan from Okinawa
Iwo Jima
Bonin Is
Volcano Is
24 Nov 1944-14 Aug 1945 20th Air Force maintains direct air attack on Japan
Amoy
Formosa
Canton
Hong Kong
Oahu
Hawaiian Is
Pearl Harbor
7 Dec 1941 U.S. Fleet sunk by Japanese air attack on Pearl Harbor
Wake I
7 Dec 1941 Japanese attack Philippines
Marianas
Saipan
Tinian
Guam
Luzon
Philippine Is
Manila
25 Oct 1944 heavy Japanese naval losses
Mindoro
6 May 1942 Corregidor surrenders
20 Oct 1944 Leyte landing
South China Sea
Caroline Is
Eniwetok
Marshall Is
Kwajalein
Pacific Ocean Area Forces
Mindanao
Zamboanga
Sulu Sea
Palau
Truk
Majuro
Pacific Ocean
Brunei
Tarakan
Makin
Gilbert Is
Tarawa
Abemama
Christmas I
Morotai
Manado
Halmahera
Balikpapan
Sorong
Schouten Is
Manus I
Admiralty Is
Hollandia
Bismarck Arch
New Ireland
Rabaul
Green Is
Celebes
Amboina
Ceram
Newak
New Guinea
Makassar
Banda Sea
Aroe Is
New Britain
Bougainville
Solomon Is
7 Aug 1942-9 Feb 1943 Guadalcanal Japanese repulsed
Ellice Is
Russell Is
Tulagi
Tanimbar Is
Lombok
Sumba
Timor
Port Moresby
Buna
17-25 Sept 1942 Japanese ground forces repulsed
4/8 May 1942 Battle of the Coral Sea, Japanese forces repulsed
Santa Cruz Is
25/26 Oct 1942 Japanese forces repulsed
Cape York
Darwin
Timor Sea
26 Aug 1942 Battle of Milne Bay, Japanese repulsed
South West Pacific Area Forces
South Pacific Area Forces
Espiritu Santo
New Hebrides
Fiji Is
9 Feb 1942 U.S. forces land
Coral Sea
New Caledonia
12 March 1942 U.S. forces land
AUSTRALIA
Sydney
Melbourne
130°
170°
40°
20°
60°

Europe after 1945

Europe emerged from the war of 1939–45 devastated and politically divided. Major territorial changes in the east, where Soviet frontiers were advanced approximately to the former Tsarist boundary and Poland was compensated with German territory up to the Oder-Neisse line, were accompanied by a vast movement of displaced persons, including over 12 million Germans (map 1). Germany and Austria were divided into occupation zones and placed under four-power control. But growing Soviet-American conflict after the abortive Potsdam conference (July–August 1945) undermined four-power cooperation, and the consolidation of the Soviet hold in eastern Europe (map 4) accelerated the division of the continent into two armed camps, completed by the establishment of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (1949) and the Warsaw Pact Organisation (1955) (map 3). In 1949 the three western zones of Germany became the German Federal Republic, while Moscow established the German Democratic Republic in the east. Both were reorganised into new modern administrative systems (map 5).

Economic recovery in the West was stimulated by American aid under the Marshall Plan (1947), and after 1950 western Europe experienced an unprecedented economic boom (diagram 2). Simultaneously, the process of economic integration was initiated which led in 1957 to the creation of the European Economic Community (EEC), though at first Great Britain remained outside, founding a rival organisation, EFTA (European Free Trade Association), and only joining the EEC with Denmark and Ireland in 1973 (map 3). In eastern Europe, Soviet reparations drained the economy and recovery scarcely began until after the death of Stalin in 1953. Harsh conditions led to widespread strikes and demonstrations in eastern Germany in 1953 (map 5) and to national uprisings in Poland and Hungary in 1956, the latter, like the experiment in national communism in Czechoslovakia in 1968, brutally suppressed by Soviet troops. Nevertheless, after 1957 there was considerable economic progress. East Germany and Romania forged ahead. Elsewhere, progress was sluggish and uneven, notably in Poland where the formation, in 1979, of an active trade union movement, Solidarity, resulted in the imposition of martial law by 1981.

Politically, by 1970 Europe had settled on its new course. Austria had recovered sovereignty in 1955. The German question still remained. The decision of the new West German chancellor, Brandt, reversing earlier policies, to recognise the post-war Polish western frontier (1970) and the separate existence of two German states (1972) stabilised the situation. Confirmed in 1975 at the European Security Conference at Helsinki, it removed old tensions and inaugurated a period of détente and peaceful co-existence. Trade between eastern and western Europe increased rapidly. Much of this was financed by Western loans. There was much discussion of economic reform, with Hungary leading the way. In Western Europe there was an upsurge of prosperity following the formation of the EEC, although member states remained divided over exchange rates, the Common Agricultural Policy and hidden protectionism. Between 1958 and 1962 trade between member states increased by 130 per cent, and in seven years Italian industrial production rose by 107 per cent. But the benefits were uneven and accrued mainly to the core countries. Spain, Portugal and other countries on the periphery remained backward, and elsewhere there were regional pockets of persistent depression. Northern Ireland, prosperous in the immediate post-war years, suffered a sharp setback after 1970, and economic distress coupled with longstanding religious and racial grievances, fanned by a series of bloody incidents in 1972, gave rise to a situation bordering on civil war (map 6). In Spain, Basques and Catalans obtained only a measure of autonomy. Left-wing terrorism, with the Red Brigade in Italy, the Red Army Faction in West Germany and others, brought bomb outrages to Western capitals. In the early 1980s, as recession and competition hit the older industries, there was much industrial turmoil and unemployment everywhere was high.


2 Post-war industrial recovery
industrial production index 1953=100
100
114
120
118
123
129
127
88
92
68
62
58
56
*=West Germany
UK
FRANCE
ITALY
POLAND
*GERMANY
USSR
1955
1949

6 Northern Ireland, 1969-80
Roman Catholic majority areas
areas of greatest violence
major incidents
main Irish Republican Army (IRA) border crossing points
SCOTLAND
North Channel
REPUBLIC OF IRELAND
ULSTER
Coleraine
Londonderry
1972 Bloody Sunday, 13 killed
1972 Claudy, 9 killed
CO. LONDONDERRY
Ballymena
Larne
CO. ANTRIM
1971 McGurk's Bar, 15 killed
CO. TYRONE
Lough Neagh
Belfast
1972 Bloody Friday, 9 killed
1978 La Mon, 12 killed
Omagh
Dungannon
Craigavon
CO. DOWN
Enniskillen
CO. FERMANAGH
Armagh
CO. ARMAGH
1976 Kingsmills, 10 killed
Newry
Crossmaglen
1979 Warrenpoint, 18 killed
Irish Sea

ICELAND
EFTA 1970
UNITED STATES AND CANADA
Atlantic Ocean
North Sea
NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
associate member of EFTA 1961
DENMARK
IRISH REP.
EEC 1973
UK
NETHERLANDS
WEST GERMANY
EAST GERMANY
POLAND
SOVIET UNION
BELG.
LUX.
GERMANY
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
FRANCE
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
ROMANIA
SWITZ.
YUGOSLAVIA
limited involvement in COMECON from 1964
ITALY
BULGARIA
ALBANIA
TURKEY
Corsica
PORTUGAL
joined EEC 1986
SPAIN
joined NATO 1982
joined EEC 1986
Sardinia
GREECE
(joined EEC 1981)
Mediterranean Sea
Sicily
withdrew from Warsaw Pact, 1968
3 Military and economic blocs, 1980
military partition:
NATO 1949-55
Warsaw Pact Organisation
economic blocs:
original members of EEC
subsequent members of EEC
Benelux Customs Union 1947 (and EEC)
Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (Comecon) 1949
subsequent members of Comecon
members of European Free Trade Association (EFTA) 1960
Denmark and UK leave EFTA Dec. 1972, join EEC Jan. 1973

ESTONIA
LATVIA
LITHUANIA
Kaliningrad
EAST PRUSSIA
U S S R
Berlin
EAST GERMANY
POLAND
opposition parties dissolved Nov. 1947
formation of Socialist Unity Party, April 1946
German Democratic Republic established Oct. 1949
Berlin blockade June 1948–May 1949
Prague
Communist coup in Prague Feb. 1948
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
NORTHERN BUKOVINA
RUTHENIA
BESSARABIA
Vienna
AUSTRIA
Budapest
HUNGARY
opposition parties dissolved Nov. 1947
ROMANIA
king abdicated Dec. 1947
Belgrade
Bucharest
BULGARIA
Dimitrov takes over as prime minister, Nov. 1946
YUGOSLAVIA
Tito breaks with Moscow, June 1948
ALBANIA
GREECE
civil war 1946
communists suppressed, 1949
4 The Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, 1945-49
Soviet territorial gains since 1939
Warsaw Pact allies
Polish gains from Germany
air corridors for Western access to Berlin
Western autobahn to Berlin

DENMARK
North Sea
Baltic Sea
SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN
Kiel
Rügen
Danzig
Königsberg to Russia 1945
E. PRUSSIA to Poland 1945
to Poland 1945
BREMEN AND BREMERHAVEN (joint city state)
HAMBURG (city state)
MECKLENBURG
POMERANIA AND SILESIA
Schwerin
GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC
Stettin
R. Elbe
R. Oder
Bremen
LOWER SAXONY
BRANDENBURG
Berlin (E. Berlin capital of Democratic Republic, W. Berlin separate state of Federal Republic, 1951)
NETHERLANDS
SAXONY-ANHALT
Potsdam
GERMAN FEDERAL REPUBLIC
Hanover
R. Rhine
NORTH RHINE-WESTPHALIA
Düsseldorf
Halle
Leipzig
Dresden
R. Neisse
POLAND
to Poland 1945
HESSE
Bonn (capital of Federal Republic, 1949)
Weimar
SAXONY
THURINGIA
LUX.
Coblenz (temporary capital)
Wiesbaden
Frankfurt am Main
Mainz
RHINELAND PALATINATE
SAARLAND French occupied; to Germany 1957
WÜRTTEMBERG BADEN (1945-52)
BADEN-WÜRTTEMBERG (3 Länder united, 1952)
Stuttgart
BAVARIA
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
FRANCE
Munich
BADEN (1945-52)
WÜRTTEMBERG HOHENZOLLERN (1945-52)
AUSTRIA
SWITZERLAND
5 Post-War Germany
border of Germany in 1937
border of German Democratic Republic 1949
borders of German post-war administrative regions
administrative capital
centres of the June Uprising 1953

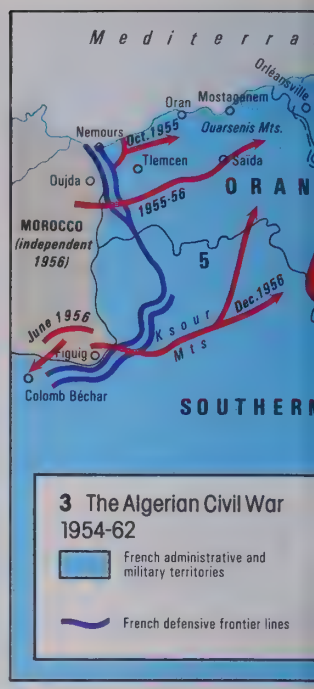
Retreat from empire after 1947

The European empires of the nineteenth century (page 100) were still intact in 1939, though most German and Ottoman possessions had passed as 'mandates' to Great Britain and France. What was remarkable was the speed of their collapse. In Asia weaknesses were exposed by Japanese victories in 1941. In Africa, the Suez War of 1956 signalled a nationalist upsurge, which gathered momentum after the Gold Coast (Ghana) became independent in 1957.

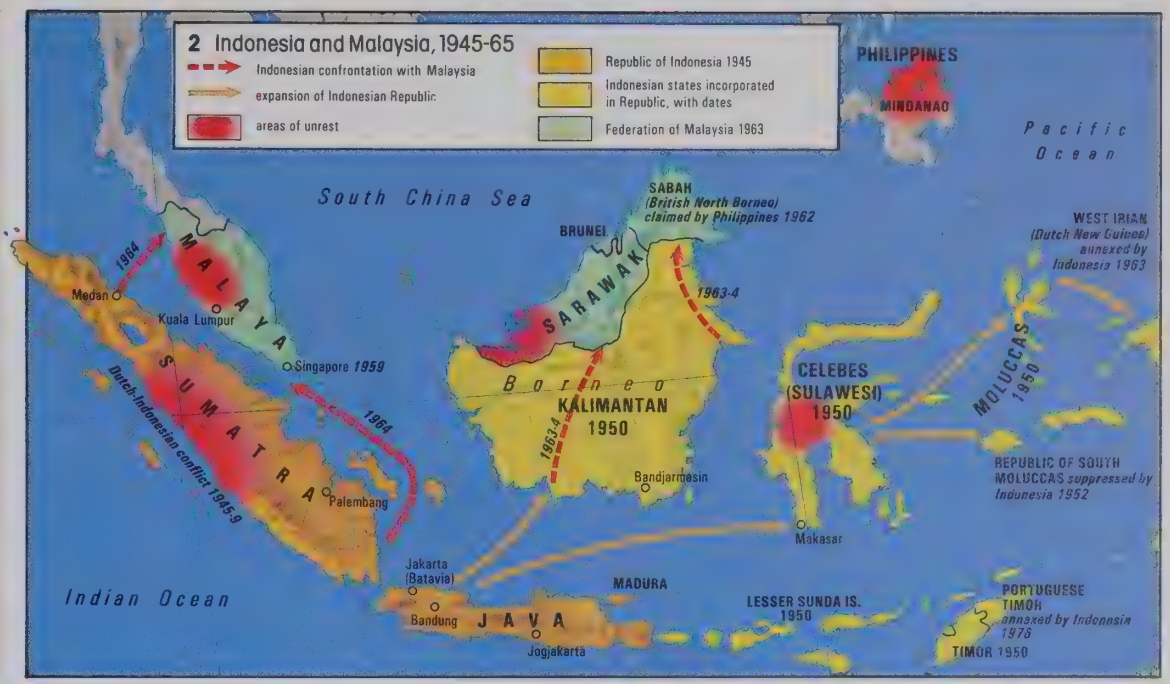
None of the European powers surrendered its colonies voluntarily. After the Japanese defeat, France fought stubbornly to restore control in Indo-China, and the Netherlands struggled to contain the nationalists in Java, who had proclaimed an Indonesian republic in 1945. Neither was successful. Vietnamese victory at Dien Bien Phu (1954) forced France to give way (page 148). In Indonesia the nationalists advanced step by step into Kalimantan, Celebes and the Moluccas, until by 1956 they controlled the whole of the former Dutch East Indies except West Irian, which they annexed in 1963 (map 2). The British, also, had no intention of abdicating their imperial position, but continual unrest forced their hand and in 1947 India and Pakistan became independent (page 104), followed by Burma and Ceylon. Nevertheless Britain still clung to its base at Singapore, fought a long war against Malayan insurgents and resisted Indonesian attempts to annex Sarawak and Brunei. Only after 1967, when Aden was evacuated, did Britain abandon its presence east of Suez, except in Hong Kong, to be retained until 1997, its economic success being of great benefit to China.

Resistance to independence was strongest in colonies with a white settler population, or where there was substantial European investment. This was the situation in the Belgian Congo (Zaire) where, within days of independence, the province of Katanga, with its rich copper and uranium resources, seceded, resulting in prolonged civil war, only halted in 1965 when a government favourable to Western mining interests was set up (map 4). In Algeria, with a white population of one million, the bloodiest war of liberation was fought between 1954 and 1962, first in the countryside and then in the cities (map 3). But conflict was scarcely less bitter in Rhodesia, Kenya and the Portuguese colonies of Angola, Mozambique and Guinea-Bissau. The British attempted to save the situation in the Rhodesias and Nyasaland by creating a Central African Federation (1953); but when Zambia and Malawi rejected this compromise (1964), Southern Rhodesia declared unilateral independence (1965) in order to ensure white predominance. But the collapse of the Portuguese empire in 1974 forced the Rhodesian government, now surrounded by black states, to begin negotiations with the black leadership in Rhodesia. In 1980 Rhodesia, now renamed Zimbabwe, became an independent black republic.

By now the formal structures of European imperialism had been dismantled (map 1). After 1960, except where special interests were involved, direct rule was seen as a liability and by 1980, apart from a few small islands, only South Africa and Namibia remained as bastions of white rule. But political emancipation did not remove economic dependence. As the Ghanaian leader, Kwame Nkrumah, said in 1965, colonisation had only been replaced by 'neo-colonialism', and it was debt, particularly in black Africa, which became a great problem.



Sea
Algiers Feb.1959
Tizi-Ouzou
Bougie
Collo
Philippeville
Bône
1954
1955
3
Sétif
2
Constantine
CONSTANTINE
Hodna Mts
Batna
1954
1
March 1955
Aurès Mts.
Feriana
Tozeur
El Oued
Oct.1955
Touggourt
TUNISIA
(independent 1956)
ERRITORIES
Ouargla
6
areas of FLN (Front de Libération Nationale) activity, with date
6 wilayas, administrative areas of FLN "shadow government"
oil fields


2 Indonesia and Malaysia, 1945-65
Indonesian confrontation with Malaysia
expansion of Indonesian Republic
areas of unrest
Republic of Indonesia 1945
Indonesian states incorporated in Republic, with dates
Federation of Malaysia 1963
PHILIPPINES
MINDANAO
Pacific Ocean
South China Sea
SABAH (British North Borneo) claimed by Philippines 1962
BRUNEI
WEST IRIAN (Dutch New Guinea) annexed by Indonesia 1963
1964
MALAYA
SARAWAK
1963-4
Medan
Kuala Lumpur
Singapore 1959
SUMATRA
Dutch-Indonesian conflict 1945-9
1964
Borneo
KALIMANTAN 1950
CELEBES (SULAWESI) 1950
MOLUCCAS 1950
1963-4
Bandjarmasin
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH MOLUCCAS suppressed by Indonesia 1952
Palembang
Makasar
Jakarta (Batavia)
MADURA
Indian Ocean
Bandung
JAVA
LESSER SUNDA IS. 1950
PORTUGUESE TIMOR annexed by Indonesia 1976
Jogjakarta
TIMOR 1950

1 Decolonisation, 1947-87
territories independent since 1947, with date
MPLA anti-colonial liberation organisations involved in armed struggle
colonies, protectorates and mandates prior to 1947:
British
French
Belgian
Portuguese
Spanish
Dutch
Italian
U.S.
Australian
South African
New Zealand
dependent states, coloured accordingly
CHINA
FGHANISTAN
TIBET
re-absorbed by China 1950; autonomous region 1965
PAKISTAN 1947
BHUTAN
NEPAL
SIKKIM annexed by India 1975
Anglo-Chinese agreement 1986 for reunification 1997, with Hong Kong able to retain its institutions for 50 years
Hong Kong
Macao
INDIA
1947
EAST PAKISTAN 1947 (BANGLADESH 1971)
BURMA 1948
LAOS 1954
NORTH VIETNAM 1954
insurrection against French rule 1945-54
THAILAND
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC OF VIETNAM unified 1976
CAMBODIA 1954
SOUTH VIETNAM 1954
Andaman Is. (Indian)
South China Sea
PHILIPPINES 1946
Pacific Ocean
SRI LANKA 1948
called Ceylon until 1972
MALDIVES 1965
BRUNEI 1984
Sabah
MALAYA 1957
Communist guerrillas 1948-57
MALAYSIA 1963
SINGAPORE 1965
Sarawak
Sumatra
Borneo
Celebes
Indian Ocean
INDONESIA 1949
WEST NEW GUINEA to Indonesia 1963
PAPUA NEW GUINEA 1975
E. TIMOR
FRETILIN (to Indonesia 1976)
AUSTRALIA

Atlantic Ocean
Bahamas 1973
CUBA
Turks and Caicos Is.
British Virgin Is.
Anguilla
St. Barthélemy
Antigua Barbuda
St. Christopher-Nevis 1983
HAITI
DOMINICAN REP.
Puerto Rico
FALN
BELIZE 1981 (formerly British Honduras)
Jamaica 1962
American Virgin Is.
Montserrat
Guadeloupe
Dominica 1978
Martinique
St. Lucia 1979
St. Vincent 1979
Barbados 1966
Grenada 1974
St. Martin
Sint-Maarten
HONDURAS
NICARAGUA
Caribbean Sea
Aruba
Curaçao
Bonaire
Trinidad and Tobago 1962
PANAMA
COLOMBIA
VENEZUELA

New Ireland
New Britain 1975
(to Papua New Guinea)
Kiribati 1979 (formerly Gilbert Is.)
Tabuaeran 1979
(formerly Fanning I.)
Nauru 1968
Jarvis I.
Pacific Ocean
Tuvalu 1978
(formerly Ellice Is.)
Marquesas Is.
Solomon Islands 1978
Wallis and Futuna Is.
Western Samoa 1962
American Samoa
Society Is.
Vanuatu 1980
(formerly New Hebrides)
Tonga 1970
Tahiti Is.
Fiji 1970
Cook Is.
Gambier Is.
New Caledonia
Pitcairn I.
Kermadec Is.
Norfolk I.
AUSTRALIA
Lord Howe I.

Asia and Africa after independence

The history of Asia and Africa since independence is one of chronic instability. Three factors stand out: first, the seizure of power by military leaders (Egypt 1952, Pakistan 1958, Ghana 1966, Indonesia 1967), with the aim (rarely successful) of abolishing corruption and stabilising the economy; second, the resurgence of long-standing regional, tribal and religious conflicts (Naga unrest in India, Kurdish revolts in northern Iraq, Turkey and Iran, nationalist uprisings among the Kachins, Mons, Shans and other 'hill peoples' in Thailand and Burma); finally persistent intervention by the great powers, particularly in the Middle East. Sino-Soviet rivalry lay behind the Vietnamese invasion of Cambodia and the Chinese invasion of Vietnam (1979). In Africa the United States and the Soviet Union intervened in the Somali-Ethiopian war (1976–78), and France sent troops to Chad, and, with other Western powers, helped to quell the insurrection in Zaire in 1978. The attempted secession of Biafra (map 2), essentially a revolt of the Ibo people in eastern Nigeria against northern domination, was defeated by the federal government, with broad international backing. On the other hand, the secession of Bangladesh from Pakistan (1971) was successful, though only achieved with massive Indian military support.

Two countries alone were exceptions from the general pattern. Japan's progress, after the recovery of independence in 1951, was phenomenal. Maintaining close relations with the United States, successive governments concentrated on industrial development and new technology until in the 1970s Japan emerged as the world's third industrial nation (diagram 4). The case of China is more equivocal. Reconstruction after the Revolution (page 122) proceeded apace; but the 'Great Leap Forward' (1958–60) and the 'Cultural Revolution' (1966–68) brought not only political strife but also severe economic disruption and widespread massacre. After the death of Mao Tse-tung (1976) stability returned and there was wide-ranging economic reform, particularly in agriculture. China also became an industrial power, and the inequalities of the period before 1949 were largely eliminated. Elsewhere, persistent poverty and gross disparities of income fomented discontent. A few countries (South Korea, Taiwan, Singapore) made considerable economic progress despite recession in the later 1970s, and the countries of the 'Pacific rim' took a high share of trade in new technology. Elsewhere, even in the oil-rich nations, poverty was endemic. Average income in Nigeria in 1975 was under $500; in Iran, at the time of the revolution against the

1963-74 intermittent intercommunal clashes
1974 Turkish invasion and occupation of northern part of island

1979- Muslim Brotherhood insurgency
1982 army attack on Muslim Brotherhood many thousands killed

1975-77 civil war, Christians against Muslim leftists and Palestinians
1976 Syrian intervention
1978 Israeli intervention in south
1982 Beirut attacked by Israel
Expulsion of PLO from Beirut
1985 formal withdrawal of Israeli troops

1958 King Faisal assassinated; republic proclaimed
1963 Kurdish revolt begins
1980 war with Iran (since 1982 fought mostly on Iraqi soil)

USSR
TURKEY
CYPRUS
SYRIA
IRAQ
IRAN
LEBANON
ISRAEL
JORDAN
The Gulf

1960s border conflicts with Morocco
1965 Ben Bella deposed by Col. Boumedienne

1976 Spanish Sahara jointly occupied by Morocco and Mauritania; POLISARIO guerrilla resistance backed by Algeria

1948 state of Israel proclaimed; wars with Egypt (1956), Egypt, Jordan and Syria (1967), Egypt and Syria (1973) (see map 3)
1967 West Bank of Jordan, Sinai and Golan Heights occupied. Sporadic Palestinian Arab resistance, led since 1967 by PLO under Yasser Arafat
1982 withdrawal from Sinai
1986-7 widespread Arab civil disturbances

1969 King Idris deposed; replaced by military junta under Col. Gadhafi
1986 US bomb Tripoli in retaliation for terrorist attacks

1968 civilian government overthrown
1974-85 border conflicts with Burkina

1960 - civil war; FROLINAT guerrillas supported by Libya
1973, 1981 Libyan invasions
1981 Libyan withdrawal
1984- border war with Libya

1966 Nkrumah deposed
1967-85 series of military coups

1967-70 Nigerian Civil War (see map 2)
1981 civilian rule restored 1984, 85 military coups

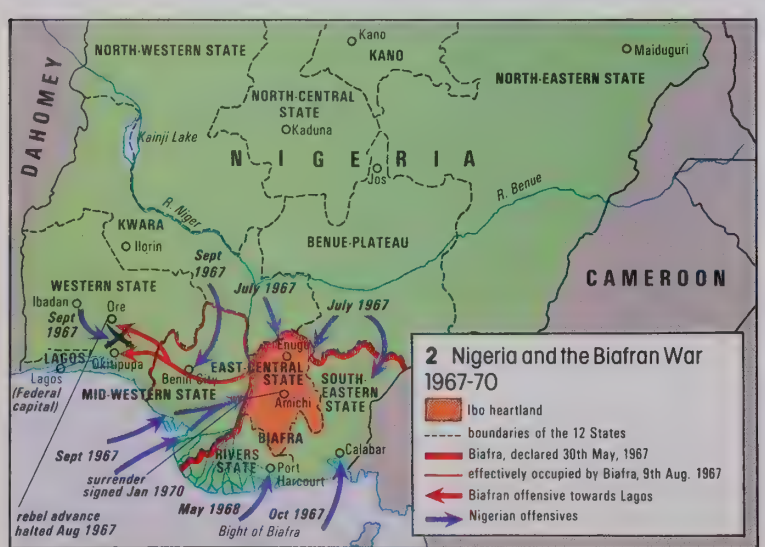
1966 military takeover led by Col. Bokassa, crowned emperor 1976
1980 republic restored

1966 Obote expels Kabaka (King) of Buganda
1970 border dispute with Kenya
1971 Obote overthrown by Amin; Asians expelled; large-scale repression
1979 invaded by Tanzania, Amin overthrown; Obote restored (1980), overthrown (Jan 1986)

1960-69 civil war (see p. 138)
1978 invasion of Shaba province by anti-Mobutu dissidents, repelled with French assistance

1975- Marxist MPLA government in conflict with UNITA guerrillas aided by South Africa

MOROCCO
ALGERIA
LIBYA
1973 Aozou strip occupied
Aozou strip
EGYPT
1952 King Farouk deposed; replaced by military junta, led by Nasser after 1954
1956 nationalisation of Suez Canal Company and war with Britain, France and Israel
1958-61 union with Syria (United Arab Republic)
1967, 1973 wars with Israel (see map 3)
1970 Sadat becomes president
1979 Egyptian-Israeli peace treaty
1981 Sadat assassinated
SAUDI ARABIA
1969 border conflict with People's Democratic Republic of Yemen
MAURITANIA
MALI
CHAD
SUDAN
1963-72 civil war
1969 General Numeiry takes power in military coup, intermittent civil war in South since independence
1984 severe famine
ERITREA
YEMEN ARAB REPUBLIC
PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF YEMEN
BURKINA
NIGERIA
GHANA
ETHIOPIA
SOMALIA
CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC
UGANDA
KENYA
RWANDA
BURUNDI
1970s border disputes with Uganda and Somalia
ZAIRE
1962-65 civil war, massacre of Batutsi
TANZANIA
ANGOLA
1980- South African intervention in support of MNR guerrillas
1986 President Machel dies in air crash
ZAMBIA
MOZAMBIQUE
MADAGASCAR
ZIMBABWE (RHODESIA)
1980 increasing steps towards one-party state
NAMIBIA (SW AFRICA)
1972 military takeover
Support for black nationalists in Angola, Namibia and Rhodesia
1975 invasion of Angola
1976 mounting black urban unreat
1976-81 African homelands (Bantustans) established in Transkei, Bophuthatswana and Ciskei
1984 new constitution: limited representation for Indians and coloureds
1985-87 growing African resistance and civil unrest
1986 commando raids on neighbouring countries
South African presence resisted by SWAPO
SOUTH AFRICA



Shah in 1978, it was under $2500.

Faced by the threat of internal disruption, governments everywhere looked to the great powers for support. Inevitably they were drawn into great power politics. Iran, where the United States covertly helped the Shah's supporters to oust the nationalist Mossadeq in 1953, was one bastion of American influence in the Middle East until 1979 when Ayatollah Khomeini introduced revolutionary Islamic fundamentalism and a long war with Iraq ensued. The Jewish state of Israel, at war with its Arab neighbours ever since its foundation in 1948 (map 3) received US support. The Soviet Union supported Syria and Egypt until the latter, after the Egyptian-Israeli war of 1973, turned to the United States for financial backing. This diplomatic revolution inaugurated a new phase. At Camp David (1978) Egypt and Israel came to terms and in March 1979 a peace treaty was signed, according to which Israel agreed to evacuate Sinai and give 'full autonomy' to the West Bank and Gaza. But Israel still refused to recognise the Palestine Liberation Organisation, which itself refused to recognise Israel. Here, as elsewhere in the under-developed world, the situation by the mid-1980s remained explosive, with potentially dangerous consequences for the peace of the world.

1 Post-independence wars and revolutions

civil war
invasion
guerrilla activity
border dispute

3 nationalist government of Mossadeq
oved and Shah restored
8-79 Islamic revolution; deposition
Shah, Jan. 1979; guerrilla war in
distan; large scale repression
4- Iran/Iraq war threatens international
oping in the Gulf
7 western convoys introduced

5 supports Baluchistani
aratists in Pakistan
c. 1979 invaded by USSR;
in killed, Karmal installed as
sident; continued resistance
Islamic guerrillas

FGHANISTAN

CHINA
1953-57 first Five-Year Plan
1958-60 Great Leap Forward; abandonment of Soviet model and beginning of Sino-Soviet dispute
1960- border conflicts with India and USSR
1966-68 Cultural Revolution; mobilisation of Red Guards
1969-75 stabilisation and economic progress
1971 China admitted to United Nations
1972 Nixon's visit to Peking and normalisation of Sino-American relations
1976 death of Mao Tse-tung; political reorientation under Hua Guofeng and Deng Xiaoping, leading to a limited revival of private sector trade and production

1948 Democratic People's Republic of Korea proclaimed
1950 invasion of South Korea

NORTH KOREA

1948 republic of Korea proclaimed
1950 Korean War (see p.148)
1961 military coup followed by dictatorship of Park Chung Hee (assassinated 1979); mounting opposition from 1974
1979 martial law

SOUTH KOREA

JAPAN

Kurile Islands incorporated in USSR 1945; claimed by Japan
1951 peace treaty with USA and end of occupation
1956 agreement with USSR, ending state of war; cession of territories (including S. Sakhalin) taken from Russia in 1905
1960 widespread demonstrations against security treaty, granting US military bases in Japan and Okinawa
1972 normalisation of relations with China
1974 beginning of incipient trade disputes with US and EEC

occupied by US after 1945, reverted to Japan 1972

OKINAWA

PAKISTAN

INDIA
spasmodic unrest among Nagas, Sikhs and Tamils
1962 Sino-Indian border war
1975-77 state of emergency proclaimed
1980 further emergency measures
1984 Sikh separatist uprising suppressed
Indira Gandhi assassinated

seat of Chinese Nationalist government under Chiang Kai-shek since 1949
1958 territorial dispute with mainland China over Quemoy and Matsu

TAIWAN

1954 French withdrawal followed by civil war and foreign intervention 1956-75 (see p. 148)
1976 North and South Vietnam reunified under Viet-Minh rule
1978 invasion of Cambodia and border clashes with China
1979 Chinese invasion

BANGLADESH

BURMA

VIETNAM

1958 military coup by Ayub Khan
1965 border clashes with India in Rann of Kutch
1965 war with India over Kashmir,
1972 ceasefire lines established
1971 war with India over Bangladesh
1977 military coup by Zia ul-Haq

1971 secession from Pakistan; civil war followed
1975 by murder of Sheikh Mujib and military control

1953-73 civil war
1975 monarchy abolished; Pathet Lao seizes power

LAOS

THAILAND

1965-75 Marxist insurgency by People's Democratic Republic of Yemen defeated with British and Iranian help

2- 69 civil war
2-79 intermittent war with
ple's Democratic Republic of Yemen

1- war against Eritrean secessionists
4 Emperor Haile Selassie overthrown
rmy junta
-88 severe famine, aid from West
4, 1970 border disputes with Ethiopia and Kenya
6-78 occupation of Ogaden and war with Ethiopia

1947 military takeover, guerrilla activity by Communist and minority groups since 1960
1976 border clashes with Cambodia
1987 border clashes with Laos

CAMBODIA

PHILIPPINES
Communist and Muslim insurgency since 1968, erupting into civil war 1972-78
1986 Marcos regime ousted following general election

continuing guerrilla activity since independence (1948) by Communist and minority groups, united in 1975-76 into Federal National Democratic Front
1958, 1962 military coups
1974 Socialist People's Republic inaugurated

1970 monarchy abolished
1970-74 civil war; victory of Khmer Rouge who conduct massacre of civilians
1978 Vietnamese invasion overthrows Khmer Rouge

Mindanao

SRI LANKA

1958, 1961 fighting between Sinhalese and Tamils
1971 government assumes emergency powers after rural guerrilla uprisings; 1984 intercommunal rioting
1986 Indian intervention to crush Tamil rebellions

1969 risings by Chinese minority groups
1975-78 Communist guerrilla activity
1978- renewed racial and religious conflict

MALAYSIA

IRIAN JAYA

INDONESIA

1967 Sukarno ousted by military coup; suppression of Communists
1976- resistance to Indonesian rule in E. Timor
1977-79 secessionist rising in Irian Jaya

E. Timor

3 Israel and Palestine, 1947-80

Jewish state under UN partition plan for Palestine 1947
Israel after Arab invasion and War of Independence 1948
Israel conquests 1967
Egyptian re-conquests, and Israeli conquests 1973

350,000 from Europe
283,000 from M. East

Beirut
Damascus
LEBANON
SYRIA
Tyre
Golan Heights
Qunaytirah
Sea of Galilee
Haifa
Samaria
R. Jordan
Tel-Aviv
Nablus
West Bank
Jerusalem
Amman
Jericho
Jaffa
Mediterranean Sea
264,500 from N. Africa
ISRAEL
Gaza
Hebron
Dead Sea
Port Said
Gaza Strip
Rafah
Judaea
Beersheba
El Arish
JORDAN
Negev
Ismailia
Suez Canal
Giddi Pass
Mitla Pass
Suez
Sinai Peninsula
returned to Egypt 1981
Elat
Aqaba
SAUDI ARABIA
Abu Rudeis oilfield
Gulf of Aqaba
Gulf of Suez
EGYPT
Strait of Tiran
Red Sea
Sharm el Sheikh
Ras Muhammad

population movements:
Jewish immigration 1948-64
Arab emigration 1948 (total 726,000)
Arab emigration 1967 (total 400,000)

4 Japanese industrial production, 1945-80

index of industrial production (1945=100)

2684.1
1736.4
487.8
112.2
1980
1970
1960
1950

16,317,000
13,500,000
13,804,000
10,172,000
7,290,000
7,038,100
5,813,000
3,178,000
1,859,000
193,000
165,100
1,600
1,807,000
227,000
1980
1970
1960
1950

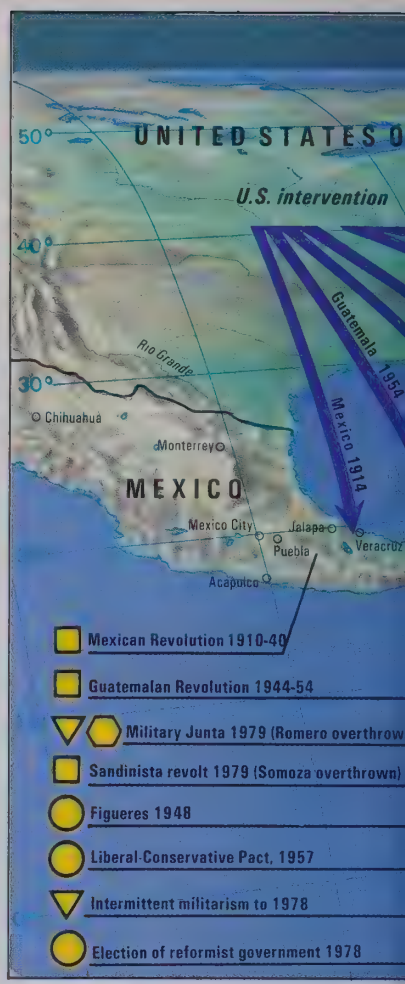
cameras † cars † televisions † and computers ships *
growth of industrial production
† units
* metric tons

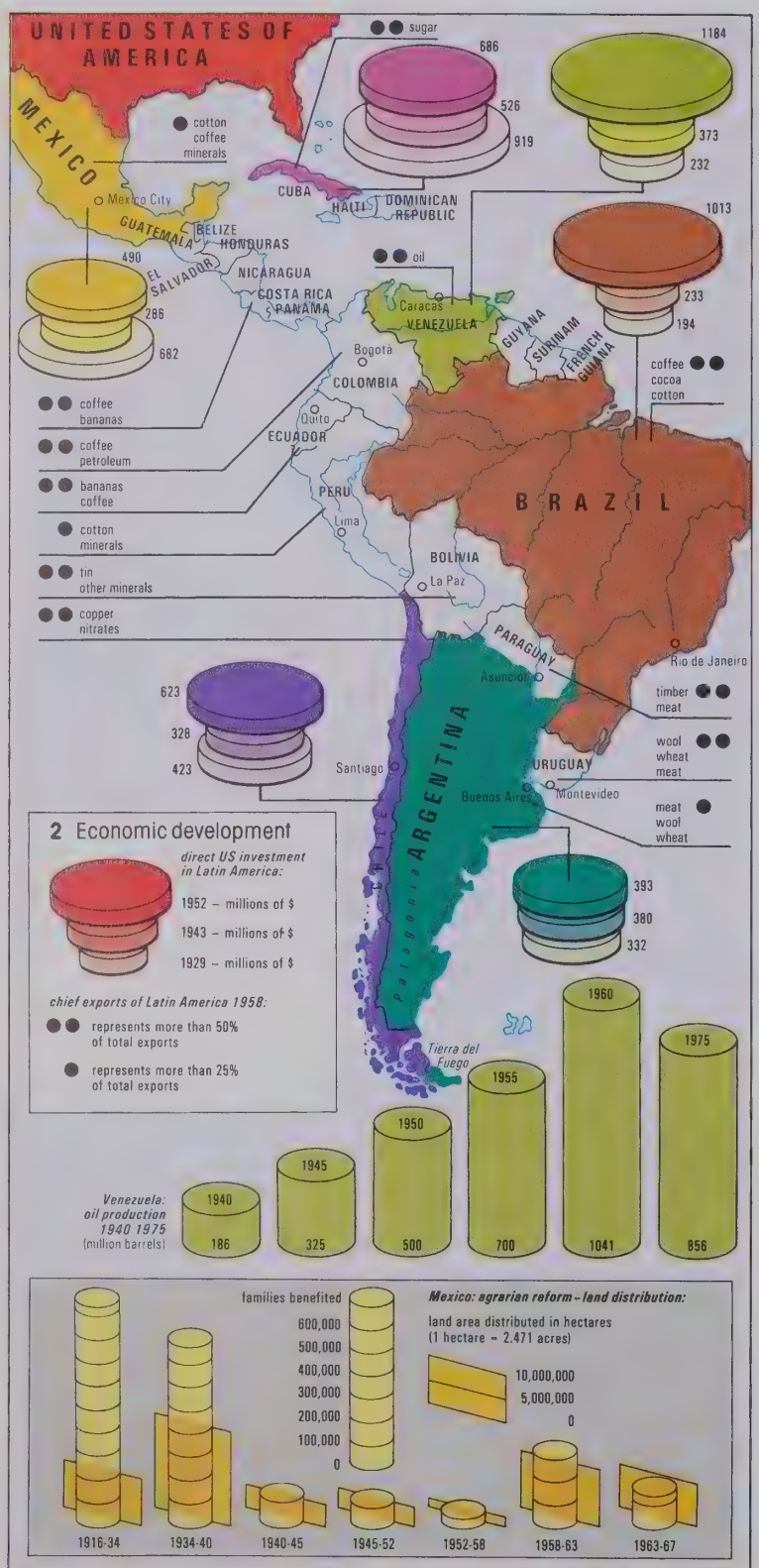
Latin America since 1930

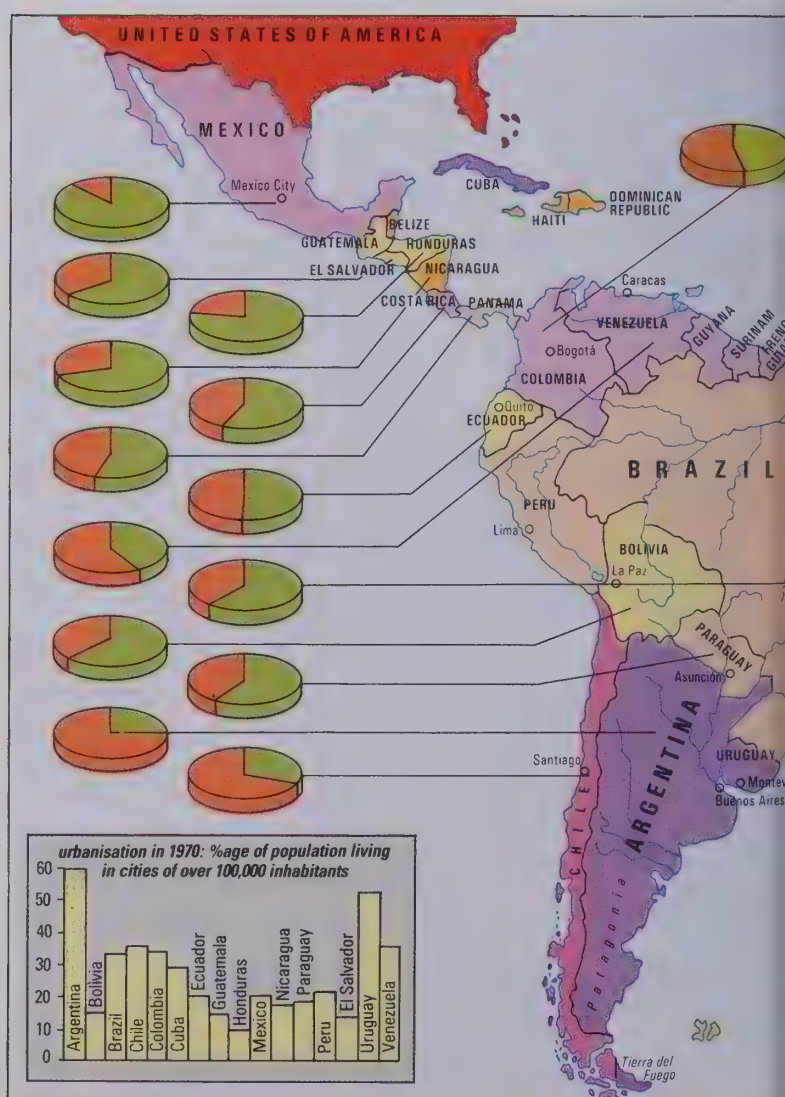
The world depression of 1930 (page 130) was a watershed in the history of Latin America. Heavily dependent on primary exports (map 2), all the republics were hit by the drop in world trade. Chile's exports fell by over 80 per cent between 1929 and 1933; those of Bolivia and Peru by 75 per cent. In Brazil coffee was burnt. Only oil-exporting Venezuela more or less weathered the storm. The result was widespread disillusion with the middle-class liberal or radical parties which seemed helpless. In 1930 and 1931 11 of the 20 republics south of the Rio Grande experienced revolutionary changes of government. In Mexico, where Cárdenas (1934–40) revived the land distribution policies of 1911, the shift was to the left, and a few other countries (e.g. Colombia) had progressive regimes; but the swing was mainly to the right, though not back to nineteenth century *caudillismo* (page 96), the social bases of which were being eroded by urbanisation and population movements (map 3). The new dictators were populists, appealing directly to the masses and cooperating with organised labour and the trade unions. They also introduced programmes of industrialisation, following Soviet (or more often) fascist models, to reduce dependence on overseas markets and hasten economic development.

Manufacturing industry was given a further boost by the Second World War which cut off imported consumer goods and stimulated the industrial sector. But industrialisation made Latin America dependent upon imported capital goods, raw materials, technology and finance, creating enormous foreign debts. New forms of foreign penetration such as the multi-national corporation exploited the cheap labour markets of Latin America without stimulating economic development. Social tensions arose from income concentration, unemployment, lack of opportunities and the presence of foreign interests. Social revolutions were attempted but frustrated in Guatemala, Bolivia and Chile (map 1), and this underlined the obstacles to change when economies are too narrowly based to sustain welfare programmes and when local élites are prepared to collaborate with the United States. Cuba from 1959 attempted to achieve social change, economic growth, and freedom from the United States simultaneously. The revolution led to greater social equality and an improvement in the prospects of rural workers but it also involved a commitment to a repressive government and a dependence on the Soviet Union.

In the face of revolutionary change many regimes closed their ranks, and in the course of the 1970s the military governments of the south combined political repression with economic liberalism and enjoyed some support from the upper and middle sectors. But world recession hit their economies and, with the exception of Chile, drove the military back to the barracks in the mid-1980s. Democracies such as Mexico and Venezuela offered an alternative model and with the rise of oil revenues from 1973 could claim economic and social gains. But the end of the oil boom and excessive state expenditure cast a shadow over their future development.







1 Social and political movements, 1930 - 80
Social revolution Fundamental change (attempted or achieved) in economic and social structure by nationalist or Marxist movements
Reformism Moderate socio-economic change or modernisation by democratic or other process
Populism Revolutionary change by dictatorships appealing to popular forces, especially urban labour
Christian Democracy Radical socio-economic change by Christian Democrat parties
Militarism Military dictatorship of the right, with or without social or modernising programme
Indigenous guerrilla movements Urban guerrillas from late 1960's following failure of Cuban-inspired rural guerrillas
MERICA
Atlantic Ocean
Washington
Dominican Republic 1916-24, 1965-66
Haiti 1915-34
Cuba 1921-23, 1933, 1961
Panama 1903-14
Nicaragua 1912-33
Bahama Islands
Miami
Havana
CUBA
Santiago
Cuban Revolution 1959
HAITI
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC
Dominica
Martinique
St. Lucia
St. Vincent
Barbados
Grenada
Tobago
Trinidad
Cuban inspired guerrilla movements 1959-68
US invasion 1983
BELIZE
GUATEMALA
Guatemala City
HONDURAS
EL SALVADOR
Managua
NICARAGUA
San Jose
COSTA RICA
Panama City
PANAMA
Cartagena
Caracas
VENEZUELA
Georgetown
Paramaribo
Cayenne
SURINAM
FRENCH GUIANA
GUYANA
Rómulo Betancourt 1945-48, 1959-64
Carlos Andrés Pérez 1974-79
Rafael Caldera 1969-74 Luis Herrera Campíns 1979
Modernising militarism 1964
Getulio Vargas 1930-45, 1950-54
João Goulart 1961-64
COLOMBIA
Bogotá
Macapá
Belém
Fortaleza
Rio Negro
R. Amazon
Gurupá
Manaus
Recife
Quito
ECUADOR
Guayaquil
R. Purus
PERU
B R A Z I L
Piura
Salvador (Bahia)
Trujillo
Huánuco
Brasilia
Callao
Lima
Cuzco
Belo Horizonte
Arequipa
La Paz
BOLIVIA
Sucre
Radical militarism 1968
Return to civilian rule 1980
São Paulo
Rio de Janeiro
Santos
PARAGUAY
Asunción
Military dictatorship Stroessner 1954
Florianópolis
Antofagasta
Bolivian Revolution 1952-64
Che Guevara (killed1967)
Military 1980
San Miguel de Tucumán
Porto Alegre
Uruguay
Copiapo
Rio Grande
Eduardo Frei 1964-70
Salvador Allende (Popular Unity) 1970-73
Pinochet 1973- free market economy
Santa Fé
Córdoba
URUGUAY
Fray Bentos
Batllismo 1903-33
Rosario
Montevideo
Valparaiso
Mendoza
Buenos Aires
Tupamaros
Santiago
CHILE
ARGENTINA
Military 1973
Concepción
Bahía Blanca
Montoneros
Valdivia
Juan Domingo Perón 1943-55, 1973-4
Osorno
Rawson
Military 1976-83
Patagonia
Comodoro Rivadavia
Santa Cruz
Falkland Islands (Islas Malvinas) occupied by Argentina 1982; occupation ended by UK Task Force June 1982
Tierra del Fuego
3 Population growth and change
middle class, as % of total population (1963):
5%-20%
20%-30%
30%-40%
40%-50%
over 50%
no available information
50%
percentage of population engaged in agriculture (1963)
Rio de Janeiro
Mexico: population increase 1900-80
millions
13.6
15.2
14.3
16.6
19.7
25.8
35.0
48.2
67.0
Mexican Revolution
Post-Revolution
Brazil: population increase 1920-80
millions

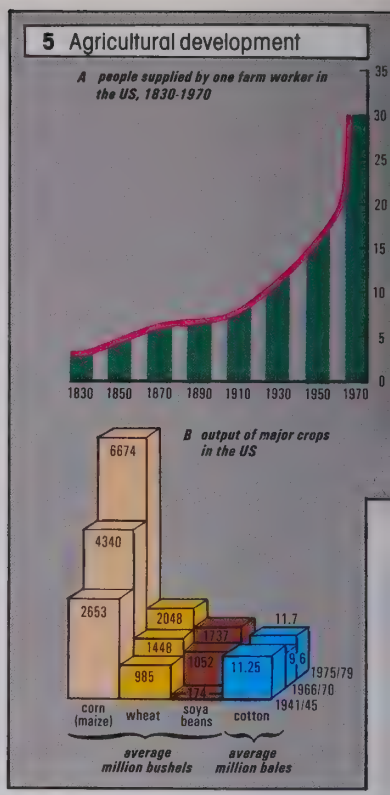
The United States from 1945

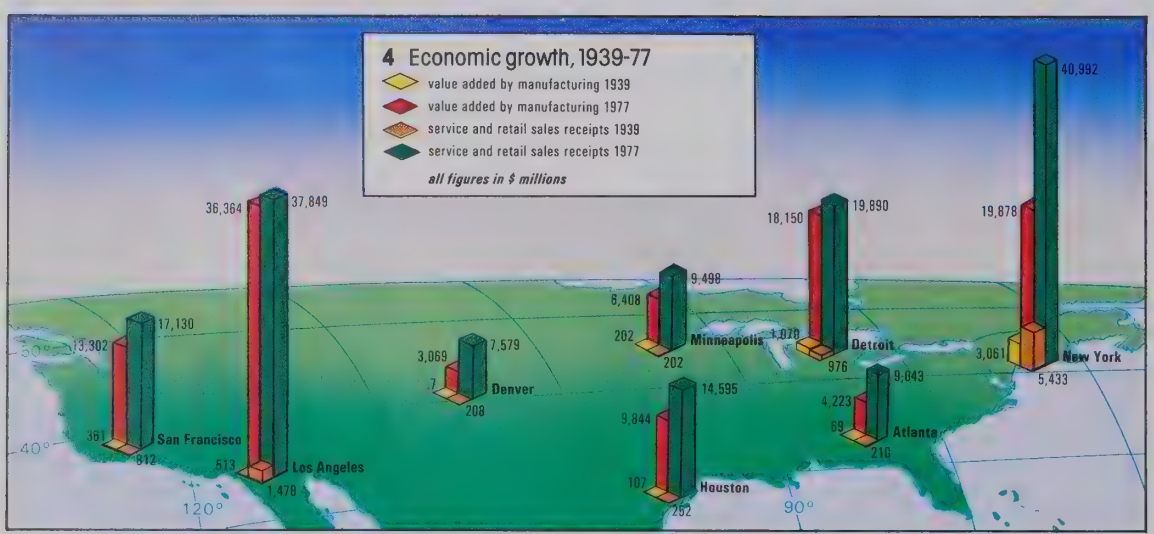
The years from 1940 to 1980 saw economic, demographic, and social changes in the United States that dramatically transformed the lives of its people. During these decades the agricultural, industrial, and service sectors of the economy reached unprecedented levels of scale and productivity. Fewer farmers provided not only ample sustenance to a population which, by 1980, was overwhelmingly urban, but also a significant proportion of the world's production of major staples such as wheat, corn, and soya beans (diagram 5, A–C). Mechanisation (under 10 per cent of the cotton crop was harvested by machine in 1949, 96 per cent in 1969), greater yields from improved seed and fertilisers, and an intensely market-oriented and government subsidised system of sales and distribution made this possible. The economy at large grew at a comparable pace until the 1970s. The gross national product (in constant 1958 dollars) was $227.2 billion in 1940, $722.5 billion in 1970. The service sector expanded more rapidly than did manufacturing, and cities such as Atlanta and Houston in the South and Southwest, and Los Angeles, San Francisco, and Denver in the West, became major centres of economic activity (map 4).

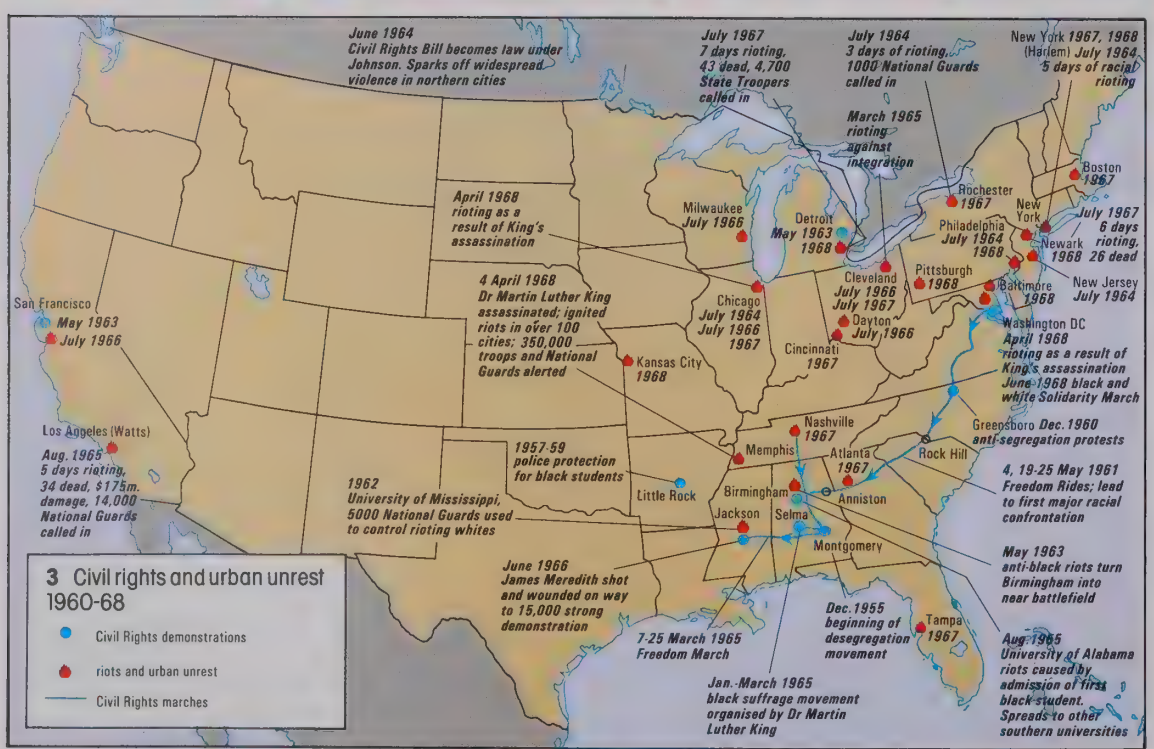
This economic growth was accompanied by massive flows of people both within and into the country. With the end of large-scale immigration in the 1920s and the relative immobility of the 1930s, it seemed as though the mobility of American life was over. But the armament build-up during the Second World War attracted many people to the old industrial centres of the Northeast and the Midwest, and to new plants elsewhere. Economic expansion after the war sustained these flows. Millions of blacks and whites left the Southern countryside for the East, the Midwest, and the far West: many more agricultural, industrial, and professional families moved to the West, the Sun Belt of the South and Southwest, and to burgeoning cities around the nation (map 1). An interstate system of highways totalling about 40,000 miles by 1980 facilitated the long-distance movement of people, and the rise of complex networks of residence and work (map 2). By 1980 only a third of the population lived in non-metropolitan areas.

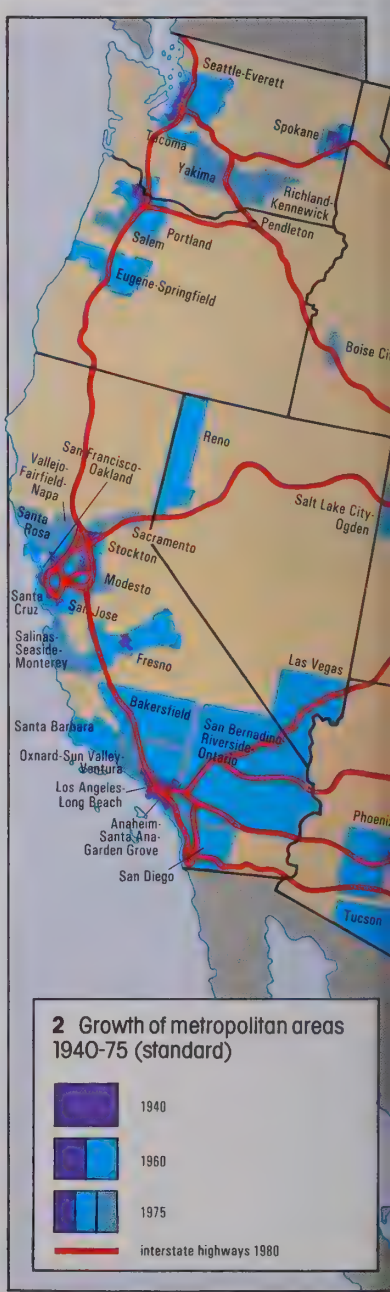
The flow of people into the US also grew. About 10 million recorded immigrants came between 1950 and 1980 (plus millions more illegally). Larger numbers arrived from Asia and Latin America than ever before (map 1). Perhaps the most dramatic social change was in the realm of race relations. Between 1940 and 1980 a centuries-old structure of formal, explicit racial discrimination against blacks and Asians all but disappeared. Minorities made major gains in education, income, and social acceptance. But this revolution in race relations was not without strains. The massive black and Hispanic migration to American cities exploded in substantial urban riots during the troubled years of the 1960s (map 3). A further strain was imposed by the war in Vietnam, particularly after President Johnson's decision in 1965 to commit ground troops on a massive scale (page 148). By 1968 opposition to the war had become a further divisive factor in American society.

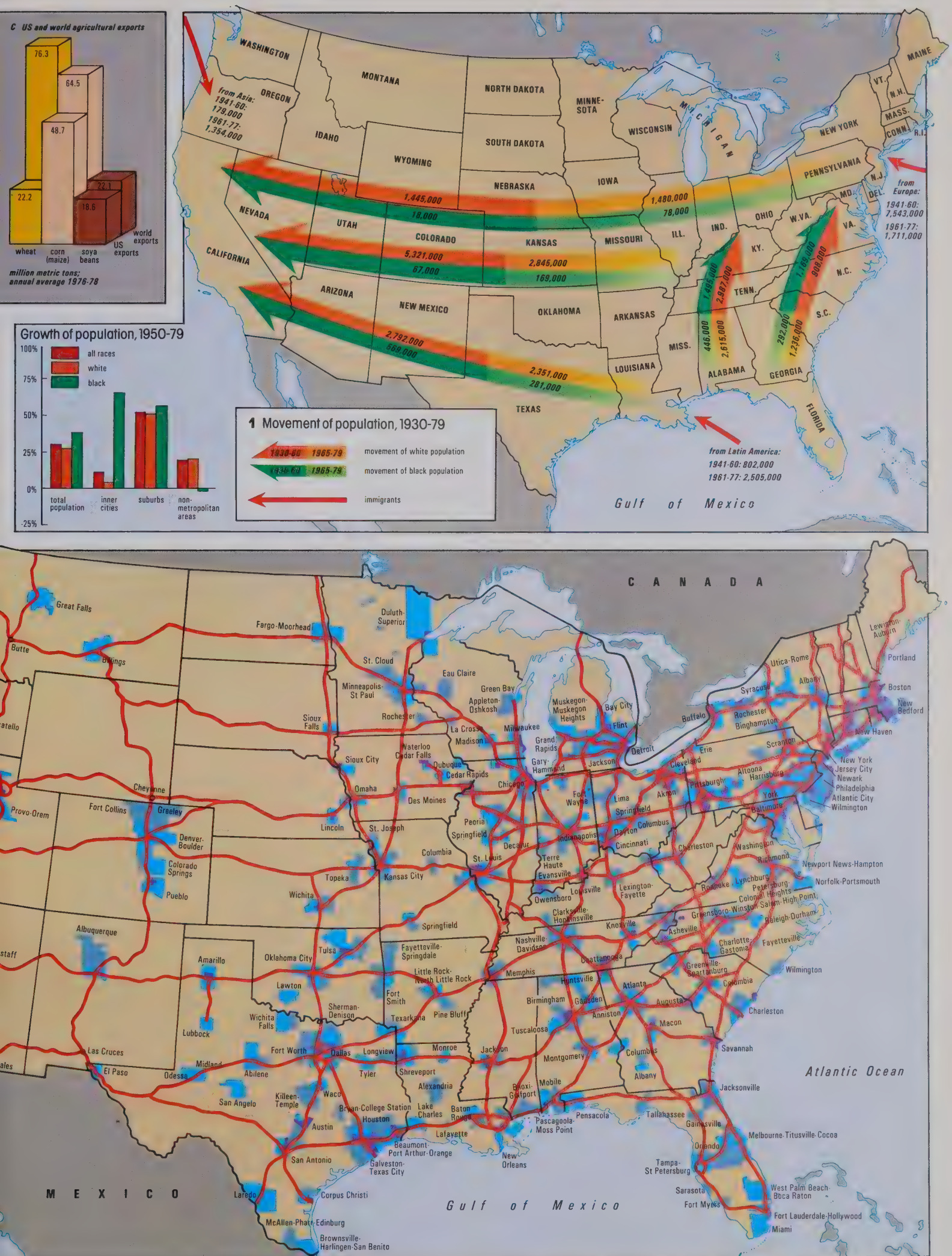
Vietnam also imposed serious strains on the American economy. After 1967 the United States entered a period of inflation and deficits, abandoning the Gold Standard and depreciating the dollar in 1971. Competition from the EEC and Japan brought US industrial predominance to an end; by 1980 unemployment, particularly among blacks and other minorities, became a serious problem. In 1980 a Republican president, Ronald Reagan, was elected on a programme of tax-cuts and rearmament. He was triumphantly re-elected in 1984 after high economic growth, but budgetary strains and the Wall Street crash of Oct. 1987 set a question mark on his achievements.









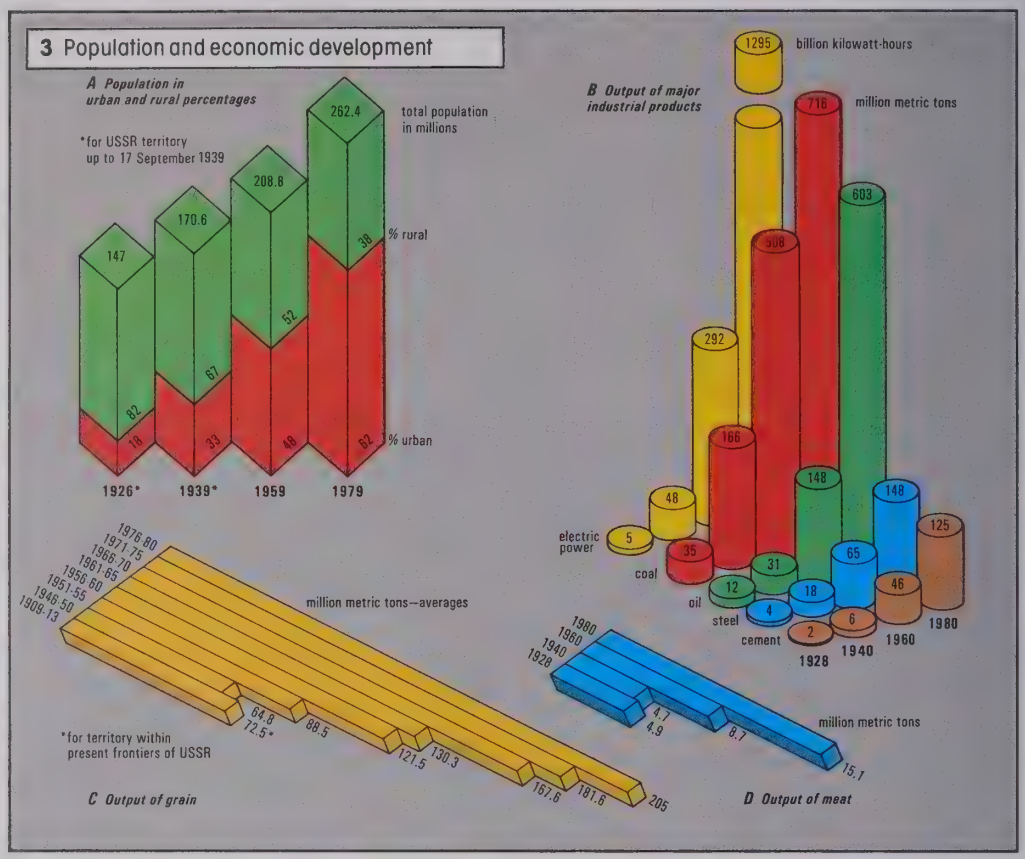

C US and world agricultural exports
76.3
64.5
48.7
22.2
22.1
18.6
wheat
corn (maize)
soya beans
US exports
world exports
million metric tons; annual average 1976-78
Growth of population, 1950-79
100%
75%
50%
25%
0%
-25%
all races
white
black
total population
inner cities
suburbs
non-metropolitan areas
1 Movement of population, 1930-79
movement of white population
movement of black population
immigrants
WASHINGTON
OREGON
CALIFORNIA
IDAHO
NEVADA
MONTANA
WYOMING
UTAH
ARIZONA
COLORADO
NEW MEXICO
NORTH DAKOTA
SOUTH DAKOTA
NEBRASKA
KANSAS
OKLAHOMA
TEXAS
MINNE-SOTA
IOWA
MISSOURI
ARKANSAS
LOUISIANA
WISCONSIN
ILL.
MICHIGAN
IND.
OHIO
KY.
TENN.
MISS.
ALABAMA
GEORGIA
FLORIDA
S.C.
N.C.
VA.
W.VA.
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
MD.
DEL.
N.J.
CONN.
R.I.
MASS.
VT.
N.H.
MAINE
from Asia: 1941-60: 179,000 1961-77: 1,354,000
1,445,000
18,000
5,321,000
67,000
2,792,000
569,000
2,351,000
281,000
2,845,000
169,000
1,480,000
78,000
1,495,000
2,987,000
446,000
2,615,000
1,169,000
908,000
282,000
1,236,000
from Europe: 1941-60: 7,543,000 1961-77: 1,711,000
from Latin America: 1941-60: 802,000 1961-77: 2,505,000
Gulf of Mexico
CANADA
MEXICO
Atlantic Ocean
Great Falls
Butte
Billings
Fargo-Moorhead
Duluth-Superior
St. Cloud
Eau Claire
Minneapolis-St Paul
Green Bay
Appleton-Oshkosh
Sioux Falls
Rochester
La Crosse
Madison
Milwaukee
Muskegon-Muskegon Heights
Bay City
Flint
Detroit
Waterloo Cedar Falls
Sioux City
Dubuque
Cedar Rapids
Grand Rapids
Gary-Hammond
Jackson
Chicago
Omaha
Des Moines
Fort Wayne
Lima
Akron
Cleveland
Erie
Buffalo
Rochester Binghampton
Syracuse
Utica-Rome
Albany
Lewiston-Auburn
Portland
Boston
New Bedford
New Haven
Scranton
Altoona Harrisburg
Pittsburgh
New York
Jersey City
Newark
Philadelphia
Atlantic City
Wilmington
York
Baltimore
Cheyenne
Provo-Orem
Fort Collins
Greeley
Denver-Boulder
Colorado Springs
Pueblo
Lincoln
St. Joseph
Peoria
Springfield
Decatur
Indianapolis
Dayton
Columbus
Cincinnati
Columbia
St. Louis
Terre Haute
Evansville
Topeka
Kansas City
Wichita
Owensboro
Louisville
Lexington-Fayette
Clarksville-Hopkinsville
Springfield
Albuquerque
Amarillo
Oklahoma City
Tulsa
Fayetteville-Springdale
Little Rock-North Little Rock
Memphis
Nashville-Davidson
Knoxville
Chattanooga
Asheville
Charlotte-Gastonia
Fayetteville
Greenville-Spartanburg
Columbia
Wilmington
Lawton
Fort Smith
Texarkana
Pine Bluff
Huntsville
Birmingham
Gadsden
Atlanta
Augusta
Anniston
Charleston
Macon
Wichita Falls
Sherman-Denison
Lubbock
Las Cruces
El Paso
Midland
Odessa
Abilene
Fort Worth
Dallas
Longview
Monroe
Jackson
Tuscaloosa
Montgomery
Columbus
Savannah
Tyler
Shreveport
Alexandria
Albany
Jacksonville
San Angelo
Killeen-Temple
Waco
Bryan-College Station
Lake Charles
Baton Rouge
Houston
Austin
Mobile
Biloxi-Gulfport
Pascagoula-Moss Point
Pensacola
Tallahassee
Gainesville
Melbourne-Titusville-Cocoa
Orlando
Lafayette
Beaumont-Port Arthur-Orange
San Antonio
Galveston-Texas City
New Orleans
Tampa-St Petersburg
Sarasota
Fort Myers
West Palm Beach-Boca Raton
Fort Lauderdale-Hollywood
Miami
Laredo
Corpus Christi
McAllen-Phatn-Edinburg
Brownsville-Harlingen-San Benito

The Soviet Union after 1926

The history of the Soviet Union, as we know it today, dates less from the revolution of 1917 than from the collectivisation of agriculture and the first Five Year Plan in 1928. By the time of Lenin's death in 1924 the new Bolshevik state had survived the perils of civil war and foreign intervention (page 120). But its future shape and character were undecided. What determined them were the policies introduced by Stalin after 1928. They have been called, not inappropriately, 'the second Bolshevik revolution.' Both the collectivisation of agriculture and the first Five Year Plan were implemented with massive brutality. Collective farming claimed, on a conservative estimate, at least 2–3 million victims. Nevertheless, by 1939 a much reduced agricultural population was tilling a larger area than in 1929 and getting a harvest 20 per cent bigger; and the surplus population had moved into industry. Between 1926 and 1940 the industrial labour force grew by 30 millions, and the output of steel, coal, electricity and oil increased by leaps and bounds (diagram 3B), providing the Soviet Union with the industrial basis to withstand the German onslaught in 1941.

The war against Germany (page 132), in which some 20 million Russians perished, caused immense devastation: 1,700 towns and 70,000 villages were destroyed. But major new industrial centres, such as Magnitogorsk in the southern Urals and Stalinsk (Novokuznetsk) on the Kuzbass coalfield, which had been developed during the 1930s (map 1), were beyond the reach of the German armies, and during the war more than 1,000 important factories were evacuated from western Russia to the Urals and beyond. Nevertheless the setback was undeniable. Industrial production was down by over 30 per cent in 1946 as compared with 1940. What was remarkable was the speed of recovery. By 1953 the pre-war level was reached and passed, but at immense human cost. Massive reparations, particularly from eastern Germany, accounted in part for the recovery, but more important was the large-scale use of forced labour, drafted into the hitherto barren north and north-east. The result was a shift in the centre of economic gravity, the foundation of new towns far away from the old industrial centres, and a corresponding movement of population (map 2). But the onset of the Cold War (page 148) necessitated a diversion of productive capacity to armaments and, as in the pre-war period, heavy industry had its first priority. The improvement of living standards lagged far behind. Agriculture was neglected. In 1953, as Khrushchev later pointed out, grain production still hovered around its 1913 level. In addition, Stalin's last years saw increasing regimentation by an inflated police apparatus and a top-heavy bureaucracy.

Stalin's death in 1953 brought an immediate reaction against his heavy-handed rule, even more marked after Khrushchev's famous denunciation of Stalinism at the 20th Party Congress in 1956. Under Khrushchev (1955–64) there was genuine relaxation, both abroad, where the reduction of Cold War tension seemed to open new prospects, and at home. At the 21st and 22nd Party Congresses (1959, 1961) Khrushchev held out glowing promises of a future of plenty, based on an upswing in agriculture and a switch to consumer products. In fact, Khrushchev's crash programme to open up the 'virgin lands' of Siberia and Kazakhstan produced bumper crops in 1956 and 1958, but subsequently failed to live up to expectations, and in 1963 it was necessary to import from Canada. Simultaneously, renewed tension with the United States, culminating in the Cuban missile crisis (page 148), once again enforced a shift of productive capacity back to armaments. In addition, Soviet industrial growth, which had been over 10 per cent per annum during the preceding decade, slowed significantly after 1958. These setbacks sealed Khrushchev's fate. Under Brezhnev and Kosygin, who succeeded in 1964, there was no abrupt reversal of direction. The Soviet Union steadily increased its industrial capacity, and even agriculture advanced quite rapidly (diagrams 3C, 3D). But its image had changed. Sixty years after 1917 it was just another big industrial power, struggling with problems that seemed intractable. The planning system now looked clumsy and incapable of reform: widespread discontent brought a reforming leader, M.S. Gorbachov, to power in 1984 with promises of reconstruction and a new openness.



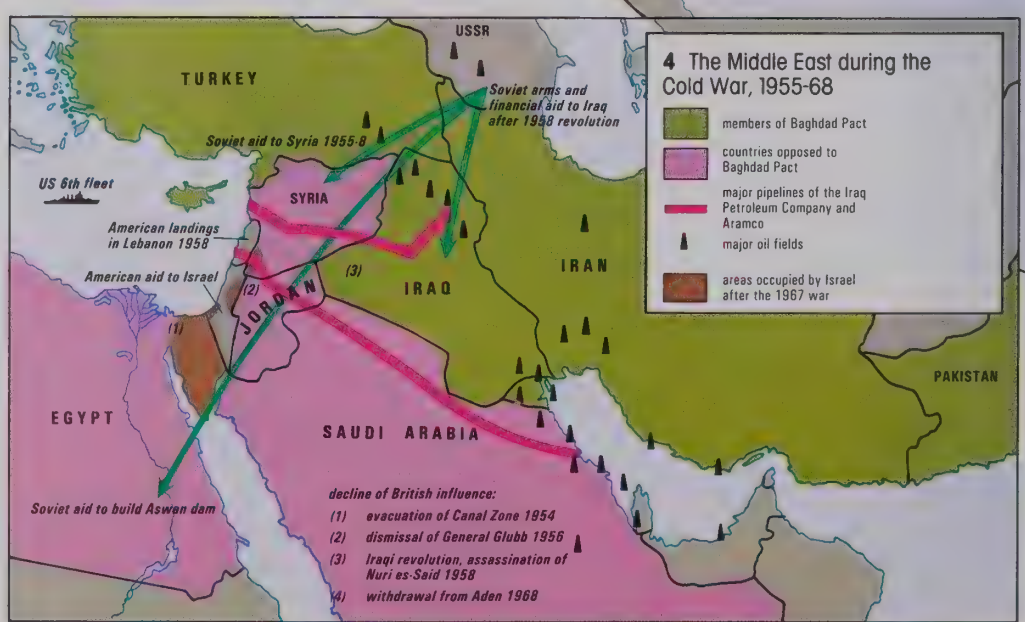
1 Industrial expansion 1926-80
coal mining
lignite mining
petroleum extraction
natural gas extraction
oil shale mining
iron ore mining
electricity generation
integrated iron and steel industry
steel making
non-ferrous metal industry
metal working and machine building industry
chemical industry
periods of industrial expansion:
1926-1940
1941-1945
1946-1980
forced labour camps operated in Siberia during Stalin's rule, 1928-1953
SIBERIA
RUSSIA
KAZAKHSTAN
MONGOLIA
CHINA
JAPAN
KOREA
AFGHANISTAN
IRAN
TURKEY
FINLAND
POLAND
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
ROMANIA
BULGARIA
BYELORUSSIA
UKRAINE
Arctic Ocean
Baltic Sea
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Arctic Circle
Ural Mts
Caucasus Mts
Aral Sea
Sea of Azov
White Sea
Northern Dvina
Amu Darya
Syr Darya
Petropavlovsk-Kamchatskiy
Magadan
Okha
Komsomolsk-na-Amure
Khabarovsk
Nakhodka
Vladivostok
Blagoveshchensk
Peking
Tokyo
Yakutsk
Chita
Petrovsk-Zabaykalskiy
Ulan-Ude
L. Baikal
Irkutsk
Angarsk
Cheremkhovo
Ust-Kut
Bratsk
Kansk
Krasnoyarsk
Novokuznetsk
Kemerovo
Tomsk
Novosibirsk
Barnaul
Semipalatinsk
Pavlodar
Omsk
Tobolsk
Ishim
Tselinograd
Temirtau
Karaganda
Petropavlovsk
Balkhash
Alma-Ata
Frunze
Dzhambul
Chimkent
Tashkent
Dushanbe
Samarkand
Bukhara
Chardzhou
Ashkhabad
Krasnovodsk
Guryev
Aralsk
Kzyl Orda
Orsk
Aktyubinsk
Orenburg
Magnitogorsk
Kustanay
Tyumen
Kurgan
Sverdlovsk
Chelyabinsk
Nizhniy Tagil
Berezniki
Solikamsk
Perm
Zlatoust
Ufa
Izhevsk
Kirov
Kotlas
Velikiy Ustyug
Syktyvkar
Ukhta
Vorkuta
Pechora
Nadym
Taz
Pur
Yenisey
Lower Ob Gasfield
Volga-Ural Oil-Field
West Siberian Oilfield
Central Asian Gasfield
Donbass
Murmansk
Arkhangelsk
Severodvinsk
Kandalaksha
Kondopoga
Petrozavodsk
L. Onega
L. Ladoga
Vyborg
Leningrad
Novgorod
Cherepovets
Vologda
Kostroma
Gorkiy
Ivanovo
Yaroslavl
Yoshkar-Ola
Kazan
Ulyanovsk
Kuybyshev
Syzran
Saransk
Penza
Saratov
Engels
Uralsk
Kamyshin
Volzhskiy
Volgograd
Astrakhan
Moscow
Kalinin
Ryazan
Vladimir
Tambov
Lipetsk
Voronezh
Tula
Kaluga
Smolensk
Orel
Bryansk
Kursk
Belgorod
Kharkov
Donetsk
Rostov
Zhdanov
Dnepropetrovsk
Zaporozhye
Krivoy Rog
Nikopol
Kremenchug
Kiev
Zhitomir
Vitebsk
Mogilev
Gomel
Minsk
Vilnius
Kaunas
Grodno
Kaliningrad
Riga
Liepāja
Klaipėda
Tallinn
Pskov
Lvov
Vinnitsa
Nikolayev
Odessa
Kishinev
Simferopol
Kerch
Novorossiysk
Krasnodar
Sochi
Tuapse
Batumi
Groznyy
Baku
Stavropol
Ordzhonikidze
Tbilisi
Leninakan
Yerevan
Istanbul
Dvina
Pechora
Ob
Irtysh
Tobol
Ishim
Ural
Volga
Don
Dniester
Dnieper
Bug
Kama
Lena
Yana
Indigirka
Alazeya
Penzhina
Olenek
Anabar
Kotuy
Lyapina
Olekma
Vitim
Amur
Zeya
Bureya
Aldan
Amga
Vilyuy
Podkamennaya Tunguska
Nizhnyaya Tunguska
Angara
Vakh
Tym
Ket
48°
24°
40°
36°
60°
64°
84°
96°
108°
20°

The Cold War from 1947

With the elimination of Germany, Japan and Italy and the weakening of Great Britain and France in the Second World War, the USA and the USSR emerged as the two 'super-powers'. The Cold War was the expression of their political and ideological confrontation. Conflict was already visible before the end of the war. In view of the US monopoly of the atom-bomb and the potential threat it implied for the USSR, Stalin decided, after the failure of the Potsdam Conference (July–Aug. 1945), to consolidate Soviet control in Eastern Europe (page 136). In reply, the USA built up the defence of Western Europe, with the formation of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) in 1949.

Starting as a conflict over central Europe and divided Germany, the Cold War soon developed into a global confrontation. For the United States the Korean War (1950) was evidence of a worldwide Communist conspiracy, although, in fact, the Chinese only intervened when the American advance to the Yalu river seemed to threaten their security (map 2); but American policy hereafter was to 'contain' the Communist powers by a series of encircling alliances. NATO was followed by SEATO (South-East Asia Treaty Organisation, 1954) and the Baghdad Pact (1955), converted into CENTO (Central Treaty Organisation) in 1959. By this time the USA had over 1400 foreign bases, including 275 bases for nuclear bombers, in 31 countries around the Soviet perimeter (map 1). Meanwhile the USSR had acquired nuclear weapons (A-bomb 1949, H-bomb 1953), and when it launched the first space satellite (Sputnik) in 1957, a new dimension was added. Although the intercontinental ballistic missile (ICBM) did not make the American bases obsolete, it meant that, in the event of nuclear war, each of the two superpowers could attack the other's cities directly. The resulting 'nuclear stalemate' enforced a gradual reappraisal.

There were other contributory factors. The monolithic blocs were showing signs of strain, evidenced on the Soviet side by Polish and Hungarian uprisings (1956) and growing signs of a Sino-Soviet rift. In Western Europe, France under General de Gaulle rejected American political leadership after 1958. Furthermore, the Baghdad Pact, far from increasing security in the Middle East, divided it into hostile camps, opening it, after America declined to finance the Aswan high dam and after the Suez War (1956), to Soviet influence (map 4). For the USA the Cuban revolution (1959) posed more immediate problems. When, after an unsuccessful attempt by US-supported dissidents to unseat Fidel Castro, the USSR sent nuclear missiles to Cuba, war seemed imminent, until Khrushchev agreed (Oct. 26, 1962) to their removal (map 5). But in Indo-China, where the US had refused in 1954 to endorse the settlement of the long anti-colonial war against France (page 138) and had set up a counter-revolutionary regime in Saigon, the situation remained tense. In the end the US was forced to intervene directly, and by 1968 some 543,000 American ground troops, as well as substantial naval and air forces, were committed. But this failed to defeat the guerrilla tactics of the Vietnamese National Liberation Front (map 3), and in 1973, with the US economy under severe pressure, President Nixon called a halt. After 1972, when Nixon visited Peking and Moscow and signed the first SALT treaty limiting nuclear armaments, Cold War gave way to détente, though after the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan (1979), a new arms race began, culminating in the controversial US 'Star Wars' programme. Under M.S. Gorbachov, Soviet diplomacy and internal policies became more flexible, a new Intermediate Nuclear Forces (INF) treaty being signed (Dec. 1987) with the promise of further reduction of missiles.



Wake
Kwajalein
Pacific
Ocean
Guam
Iwo Jima
JAPAN
US 7th fleet
Okinawa
PHILIPPINES
SOUTH KOREA
KOREA 1950-3
Formosa
Quemoy, Matsu
1954-5 1958
ALASKA
SOUTH VIETNAM
1946-54, 1957-73
INDO-CHINA
LAOS
THAILAND
MONGOLIA
CHINA
SOVIET
UNION
EAST
PAKISTAN
Indian
Ocean
GREENLAND
INDIA
Iceland
PAKISTAN
HOLLAND
BELGIUM
NORWAY
DENMARK
IRELAND
UNITED
KINGDOM
WEST
GERMANY
EG
C
P
H
ROMANIA
IRAN
1945-6, 1951-3
IRAQ
1958
YUGOSLAVIA
1948-53
BULGARIA
TURKEY
1945-7
SAUDI ARABIA
FRANCE
ALBANIA
ITALY
GREECE
1946-9
LEBANON
1958
ISRAEL
Azores
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
Ocean
US 6th fleet
MOROCCO
LIBYA
1 The Soviet and American blocs, 1949-59
USA and allies
USSR and allies
Soviet ICBM bases (7000 mile range)
other Soviet missile sites
principal Soviet military airfields
US ICBM bases (5500 mile range)
US heavy bomber bases (capable of reaching USSR with airborne refuelling)
US nuclear and other major bases (Oct. 1962)
strategic US fleets
points of conflict in the Cold War
uprisings in the Communist world
abbreviations:
C CZECHOSLOVAKIA
1948
1968
EG EAST GERMANY
Berlin 1948-9, 1958-62
Berlin 1953
H HUNGARY
1956
1956
P POLAND
1956
1956
5 The Cuban crisis, 1962
American blockade zone
Soviet mobile missile and jet bomber bases
US Air Force base
US Naval base
FLORIDA
USAF and US Army build up
Homestead A F
Miami
Key West
Guanajay
San Cristóbal
Havana
Sagua la Grande
Remedios
Candelaria
Bay of Pigs
landing April 1961
Santa Clara
CUBA
Santiago de Cuba
Guantánamo Bay
HAITI
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC
JAMAICA
Air patrol
Task Force Screen (TF 136)
Air patrol
Bahama Islands

The world in the 1980s

Changes came so rapidly in the late twentieth century that traditional expectations became unreliable guides to actual experience. Economic growth faltered in the 1970s and 1980s, bringing the post-war decades of extraordinary expansion to at least a temporary halt. In the rich countries of the West, unemployment and inflation persisted. No one had a ready cure, since official policies that checked inflation were liable to increase unemployment, and vice versa. Economic difficulties in Russia and Eastern Europe took the form of recurrent shortages of goods and foodstuffs, often compounded by defects of quality.

Harsher dilemmas confronted the poor nations. In innumerable villages, the rural peasant majority of humankind faced an unacceptable choice between impoverishing the rising generation, or sending children who were not needed at home to some distant city to compete for whatever jobs there were. Population growth underlay this crisis (diagram 2). Current political ideologies had no real answer. Communist China, socialist India, together with dictatorial (largely military) regimes in Latin America and Africa all found that their most energetic efforts at urban and industrial development fell short of a solution.

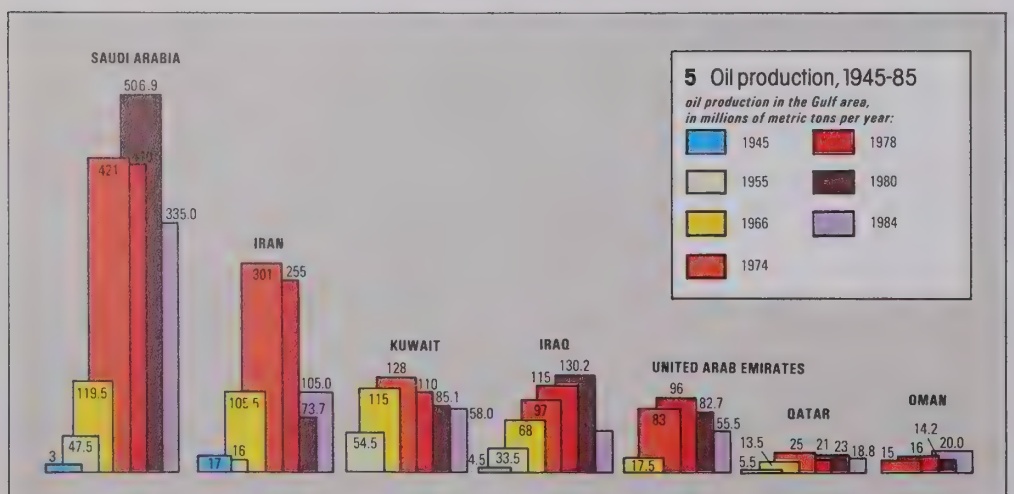
Exchanges of skill, capital and labour between rich and poor countries became sticky as one government after another began to face intractable internal problems. When oil-exporting governments agreed to a radical increase in the price of what had become the world's principal fuel in 1973, they introduced a major disturbance to the world economy. By 1985 the effort to restrict oil production so as to maintain high prices had broken down, yet, ironically, cheaper oil created new dislocations which were only sometimes beneficial.

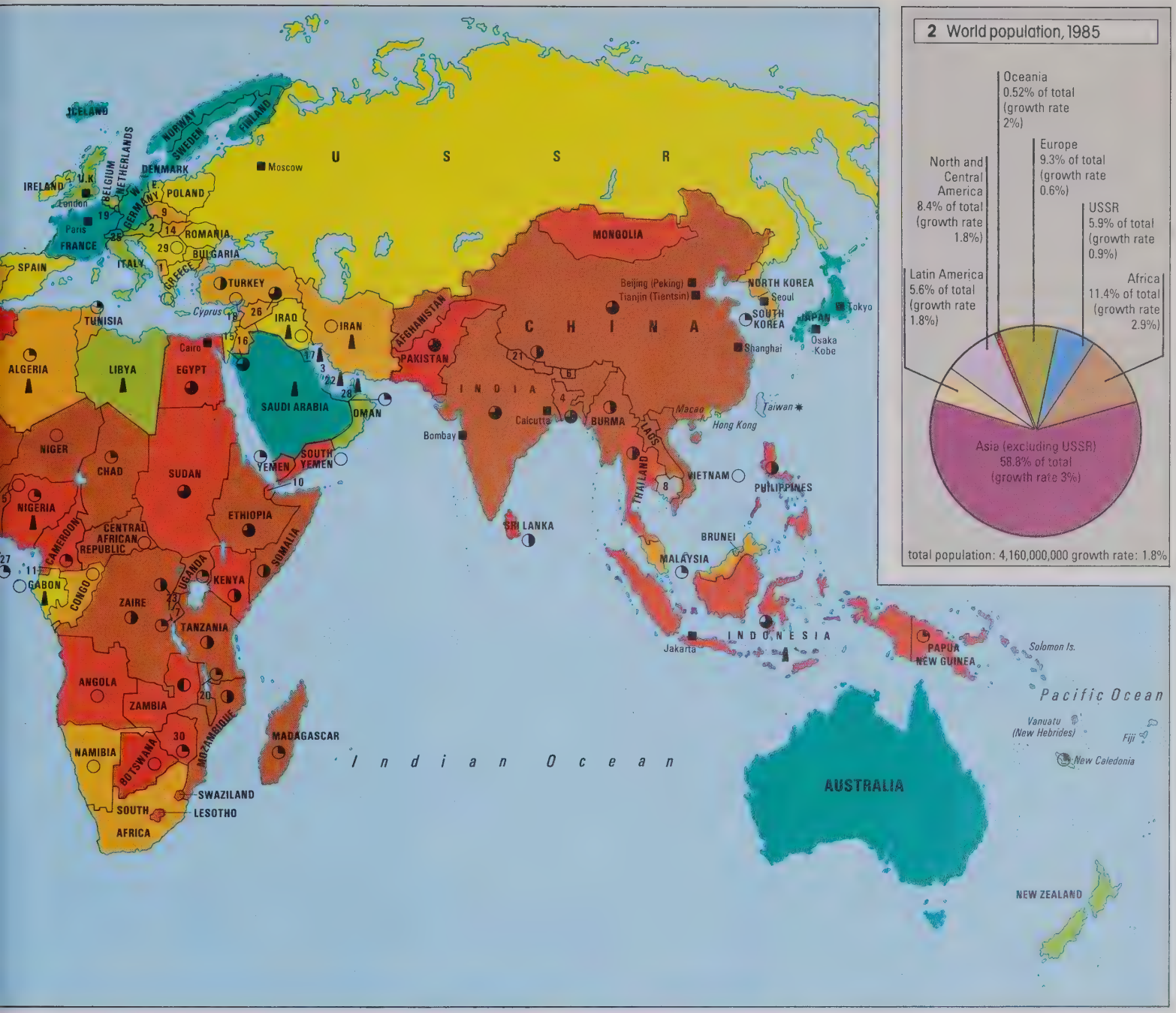
Loans from rich to poor nations had expanded rapidly in the decades of prosperity. Their usefulness was uncertain and they became crippling burdens to many debtor countries by the 1980s (map 4). The world's financial system therefore came under extraordinary strain, which was only partially relieved by rescheduling payments for the principal debtors.

Migration from poor to rich countries was another sort of exchange that ran into difficulties in the 1980s. Cheap immigrant labour had been welcomed in the rich countries during the post-war boom. But when unemployment became troublesome, racial and ethnic frictions mounted and boiled over into sporadic riots in the leading industrial cities of the Western world.

Japan remained immune to such difficulties, having no significant immigrant population. In other respects, too, Japan's economy suffered less than that of other industrialised nations, and Western nations even began trying to import Japanese managerial techniques, reversing the pattern of imitation that had carried Japan to the forefront of the world economy. If Japan and other Far Eastern nations (Korea, Singapore, Taiwan and above all, China) continue to outstrip the rest of the world in one line of economic activity after another, Western world leadership will presumably be supplanted by a new era of Far Eastern primacy. But indications of such a shift remain ambiguous as long as the success of China's massive effort at modernisation remains uncertain.

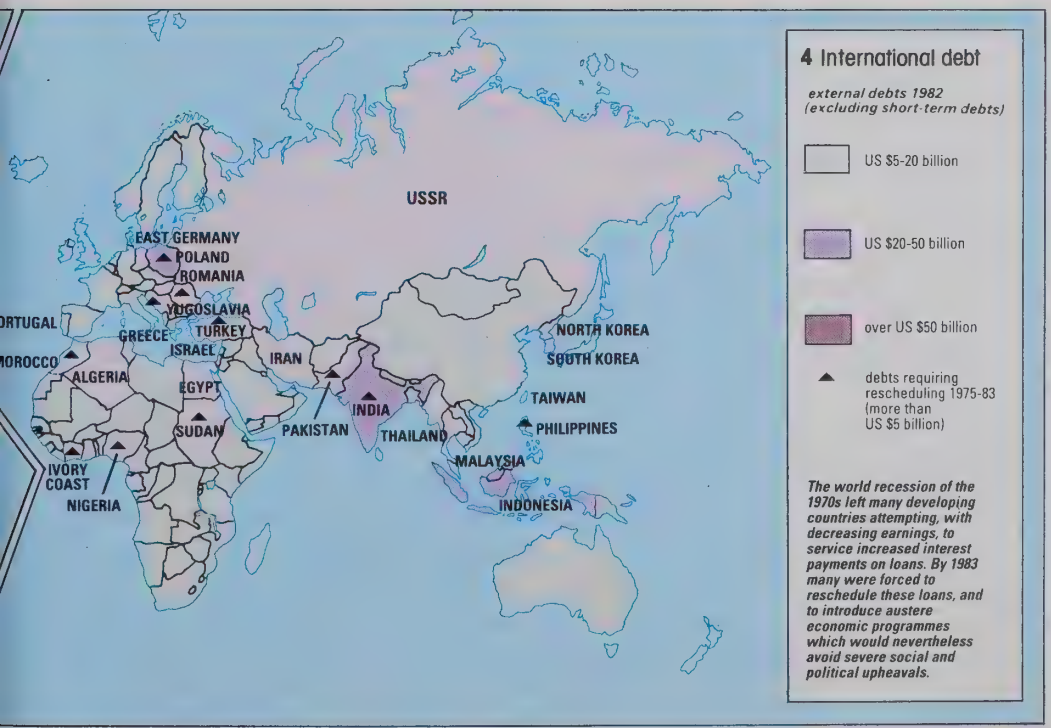
Each human community remains unique. Yet all of them faced fundamental uncertainties in the mid-1980s simply because persistence in traditional ways of behaviour no longer achieved accustomed and expected results. This made the last decades of the twentieth century more nerve-wracking than usual, even among the not inconsiderable fraction of humankind whose access to material goods far exceeded anything known to former generations.





2 World population, 1985

total population: 4,160,000,000 growth rate: 1.8%



4 International debt

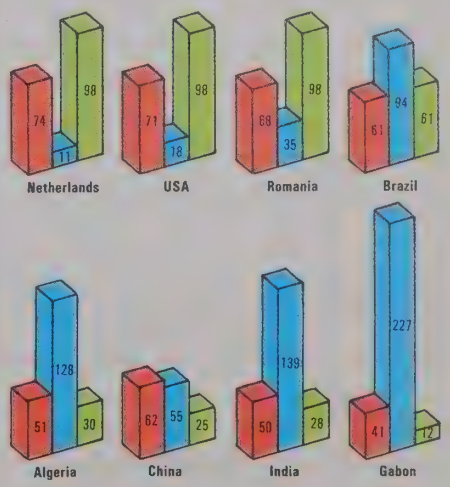
external debts 1982 (excluding short-term debts)

- US $5-20 billion
- US $20-50 billion
- over US $50 billion
- ▲ debts requiring rescheduling 1975-83 (more than US $5 billion)

The world recession of the 1970s left many developing countries attempting, with decreasing earnings, to service increased interest payments on loans. By 1983 many were forced to reschedule these loans, and to introduce austere economic programmes which would nevertheless avoid severe social and political upheavals.

3 The gap between nations

life expectancy at birth | infant mortality (deaths per 1000 live births) | literacy % of population



Acknowledgements

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Map 3, page 5, is based, with kind permission, on Professor P.A. Martin, *American Population Explosion* Science Magazine 1973

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Map 5, page 111, is based, with the kind permission of George Philip & Son Ltd, on page 215 of *The New Cambridge Modern History Atlas* H.C. Darby, H. Fullard (eds.)

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INDEX

1 HISTORICAL PLACE NAMES

Geographical names vary with time and with language, and there is some difficulty in treating them consistently in an historical atlas, especially for individual maps within whose time span the same place has been known by different names. We have aimed at the simplest possible approach to the names on the maps, using the index to weld together the variations.

On the maps forms of names will be found in the following hierarchy of preference:

a English conventional names or spellings, in the widest sense, for all principal places and features, e.g., Moscow, Vienna, Munich, Danube (including those that today might be considered obsolete when these are appropriate to the context, e.g. Leghorn).

b Names that are contemporary in terms of the maps concerned. There are here three broad categories:

i names in the ancient world, where the forms used are classical, e.g., Latin or latinized Greek, but extending also to Persian, Sanskrit, etc.

ii names in the post-medieval modern world, which are given in the form (though not necessarily the spelling) current at the time of the map (e.g., St. Petersburg before 1914, not Leningrad).

iii modern names where the spelling generally follows that of *The Times Atlas of the World*, though in the interests of simplicity there has been a general omission of diacritics in spellings derived by transliteration from non-roman scripts, e.g., Sana rather than Ṣan'ā'.

2 THE INDEX

The index does not include every name shown on the maps. In general only those names are indexed which are of places, features, regions or countries where 'something happens', i.e., which carry a date or symbol or colour explained in the key, or which are mentioned in the text.

Where a place is referred to by two or more different names in the course of the atlas, there will be a corresponding number of main entries in the index. The variant names in each case are given in brackets at the beginning of the entry, their different forms and origins being distinguished by such words as *now, later, formerly* and others included in the list of abbreviations *(right)*.

'Istanbul (*form.* Constantinople, *anc.* Byzantium)' means that the page references to that city on maps dealing with periods when it was known as Istanbul follow that entry, but the page references pertaining to it when it had other names will be found under those other names.

Places are located generally by reference to the country in which they lie (exceptionally by reference to island groups or sea areas), this being narrowed down where necessary by location as E(ast), N(orth), C(entral), etc. The reference will normally be to the modern state in which the place now falls unless (a) there is a conventional or historical name which conveniently avoids the inevitably anachronistic ring of some modern names, e.g., Anatolia rather than Turkey, Mesopotamia rather than Iraq, or (b) the modern state is little known or not delineated on the map concerned, e.g., many places on the Africa plates can only be located as W., E., Africa, etc.

Reference is generally to page number/map numbers (e.g., 118/1) unless the subject is dealt with over the plate as a whole, when the reference occurs as 118-9 (i.e., pages 118 and 119). All entries with two or more references have been given sub-headings where possible, e.g., Civil War 129/4. Battles are indicated by the symbol ⚔. References to names of persons, treaties, etc. occurring in the text are followed by the abbreviation T. e.g. 'Alexander the Great 22T.'

Though page references are generally kept in numerical order, since this corresponds for the most part with chronological order, they have been rearranged occasionally where the chronological sequence would be obviously wrong, or in the interests of grouping appropriate references under a single sub-heading.

All variant names and spellings are cross-referenced in the form 'Bourgogne (Burgundy)', except those which would immediately precede or follow the main entries to which they refer. The bracketed form has been chosen so that such entries may also serve as quick visual indications of equivalence. Thus Bourgogne (Burgundy) means not only 'see under Burgundy' but also that Burgundy is another name for Bourgogne.

3 ABBREVIATIONS

a/c	also called
Alb.	Albanian
anc.	ancient
Ar.	Arabic
a/s	also spelled
Bibl.	Biblical
Bulg.	Bulgarian
C	Century (when preceded by 17, 18 etc.)
C	Central
Cat.	Catalan
Chin.	Chinese
Cz.	Czech
Dan.	Danish
Dut.	Dutch
E	East(ern)
Eng.	English
Est.	Estonian
f/c	formerly called
Finn.	Finnish
form.	former(ly)
Fr.	French
f/s	formerly spelled
Ger.	German
Gr.	Greek
Heb.	Hebrew
Hung.	Hungarian
Indon.	Indonesian
Ir.	Irish
Is.	Island
It.	Italian
Jap.	Japanese
Kor.	Korean
Lat.	Latin
Latv.	Latvian
Lith.	Lithuanian
Mal.	Malay
med.	medieval
mod.	modern
Mong.	Mongolian
N	North(ern)
n/c	now called
Nor.	Norwegian
n/s	now spelled
NT	New Testament
obs.	obsolete
OT	Old Testament
Pers.	Persian
Pol.	Polish
Port.	Portuguese
Rom.	Romanian
Russ.	Russian
S	South(ern)
s/c	sometimes called
Som.	Somali
Sp.	Spanish
S. Cr.	Serbo-Croat
SSR	Soviet Socialist Republic
Sw.	Swedish
Turk.	Turkish
Ukr.	Ukrainian
US(A)	United States (of America)
var.	variant
W	West(ern)
Wel.	Welsh
WW1	The First World War
WW2	The Second World War

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